



Government of Bombay

**A REVIEW OF EDUCATION
IN
BOMBAY STATE**

1855-1955

*A Volume in Commemoration of the Centenary
of the Department of Education, Bombay*

POONA

1958

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INTRODUCTION

THE EDITORIAL COMMITTEE

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1. On the 19th of July, 1854, the Court of Directors of the East India Company issued orders in their Education Despatch (popularly known as Wood's Despatch) for the creation of Education Departments in the Provinces. The following year, Mr. C. J. Erskine, C.S., was appointed as the first Director of Public Instruction and the Bombay Education Department came into being.

2. In 1955, therefore, the Department completed the first hundred years of its existence. The Government of Bombay resolved to commemorate the occasion by publishing a review of the growth of education in the Bombay State during the last hundred years and entrusted the work to a Committee of officials and non-officials under the Chairmanship of the Director of Education.

3. This Report is a survey unfolding the history of the progressive partnership between Government, local educational authorities and teachers. It is also the story of a system of education—of its struggles against social prejudice and general apathy and of its efforts, through the century, to adjust itself to the needs of a democratic community.

4. The chapters trace the stages through which the organisation of education has passed. In the earliest part of the period we are shown the traditional indigenous school existing side by side with the modern type but gradually and inevitably suffering decay and final eclipse. During the same period and for a good many years later, we read of the struggles, sometimes grim but generally lively, of the Department against the forces of conservatism and orthodoxy in its efforts to extend the benefits of education to girls and to the backward classes of the community. Coming nearer to our own times, we experience, under the transfer of control to Indian hands, the freedom to mould our education in our own way, as for example, in the reinstatement of the mother-tongue to its normal and rightful place in the education of the child.

5. The period since the attainment of independence has ushered in a tremendous acceleration in Governmental effort as regards the expansion of educational facilities to all classes and areas as well as the enrichment of the content and quality of instruction. Primary and Secondary Education have been transformed from a bookish system into one which with its active methods and practical bias finds its roots in the day to day life and environment of the child. This has been achieved by the adoption of various reforms such as the change-over to the Basic pattern at the elementary stage, insistence on physical education, encouragement of social and cultural activities, increased use of audio-visual aids and the introduction of vocational guidance.

6. We have now arrived at a stage of further experiment and expansion. While acutely conscious of the colossal tasks that lie ahead, we feel that the Department can to-day look forward with confidence to a future of purposeful and planned activity in an ever-widening sphere of academic usefulness.

7. At this stage of our development, it is befitting that we pay our tribute to the devoted service of those teachers and administrators whose privilege it has been to spread abroad the benefits of education and culture through these hundred years. They were the pioneers who amidst many perplexities forged new pathways in a comparatively uncharted field. With earnestness and a dogged optimism they laid the foundations of our educational system.

8. I have to express my gratitude to the distinguished non-officials on the Committee who offered their ever willing co-operation—Shri R. V. Parulekar, Shri R. P. Patwardhan, Shri V. D. Ghate and Shri L. R. Desai. My thanks are due especially to the chief editor, Shri J. P. Naik, but for whose devoted labours this Report could not have been written.

Poona,
9th June, 1956.

S. S. BHANDARKAR,
Director of Education.

1. (1) *Indigenous Education in the State of Bombay (1820-30).*—The main object of this Review is to trace, in broad outline, the development of modern education in the State of Bombay between 1855 when the Department of Education was created and 1955 when it completed the first hundred years of its existence. Before entering upon the subject, however, it is necessary to describe (1) the indigenous system of education that prevailed in the State in the early years of the nineteenth century when the first attempts at the introduction of the modern system began to be made, as well as (2) the early developments of modern education prior to 1855.

A fairly satisfactory picture of the indigenous system of education as it prevailed in the State of Bombay in the early years of the nineteenth century is obtained from several official records including (a) a Report on the State of Education in South Konkan submitted to Government by T. B. Jervis, an officer employed for a statistical survey of South Konkan, (b) the Reports of Government Officials in response to the enquiry into the indigenous system of education ordered by Elphinstone in 1824, and (c) further Reports on Education submitted by different Government Officers between 1826 and 1829. All these original documents with a masterly introduction which analyses and evaluates their main findings have been published by Shri R. V. Parulekar.* It appears therefrom that there was, at this time, a fairly widespread net-work of indigenous schools in all parts of the State of Bombay! These institutions were of two types—*Schools of Learning* which imparted the ancient traditional sacred knowledge and the *Elementary Schools* which restricted themselves to the teaching of the three R's.

The exact statistics of the Schools of Learning are not available; but the Reports mention their existence in all parts of the State. The City of Poona, in particular, had an abundance of such schools—164 out of the total 222 schools in the City being devoted to the teaching of 'Vedas, Shastras and Science'; and the Town of Surat is reported to have had 18 'Pundits and Josees' who gave instruction in 'Sanskrit and the laws and the ceremonies of religion' to 66 scholars. The same town was also well-known for a 'College for Boharas' which was a Muslim institution for higher learning with 125 scholars. It taught the Arabic language and was maintained at a cost of about Rs. 32,000.

Regarding the Elementary Schools, however, more detailed information is available. [The Hindu Elementary Schools were naturally more numerous than the Muslim schools of this level.] They were mostly private ventures started by the teachers in response to a local demand and were maintained with the fees in cash or kind and the presents given by the pupils. They had no special buildings of their own and were held in public buildings like a *Chavdi* or a temple or in the house of a rich patron, or in the dwellings of the teachers themselves. They were open to all

*Vide Survey of Indigenous Education in the Province of Bombay (1820-1830).
L—S 1338

who could afford to pay for their schooling (except the *Harijans*) but the strong popular prejudice against the education of women restricted their attendance to boys only. The teachers were mostly Brahmins, but the Reports also mention teachers of several other castes such as 'Parbhooos, Marathas, Bhundarees, Kunbis, Wanis, and Shimpis'. Their general education was usually meagre and a teacher was not ordinarily expected to know anything more than the few simple things which he was required to teach. Their remuneration was small and although it varied from Rs. 3 to Rs. 16 per month, the average was Rs. 4 or Rs. 5 per month only. The course of instruction was very simple and included reading, writing, simple arithmetic, a thorough study of a formidable array of multiplication tables, and some elementary knowledge of accounts and letter-writing. The average duration of school-life was small—about two years in Gujarat and about three years in the rest of the State. A pupil generally entered the school at any time of the year and left as soon as he had learnt all that he desired to know or the school had to teach. Owing to the small size of each school (the average was about 20 pupils), instruction was generally given individually, and the monitorial system under which the senior boys were required to teach the junior ones was very largely in vogue. There were no regular text-books and the use of printed books was naturally out of the question at a period when the printing press itself was practically unknown in this country. The methods of teaching generally employed were rather mechanical—the very idea of pedagogy or training of teachers being unknown at this time—and the pupils were required to drill endlessly and to commit long passages and innumerable formulæ to memory. The punishments in vogue were also crude and severe.

Regarding the Muslim Elementary Schools, the Reports state that they generally taught Persian, Arabic, and also Urdu or Hindustani as it was then called. The arithmetic taught in these schools was inferior to that in Hindu schools; but owing to their more ambitious curriculum in teaching Persian and Arabic, the average duration of school-life in a Muslim school was about five years. Obviously, these schools had a religious appeal to the Muslims; but the Reports state that a very large number of Muslim pupils was attending the Hindu Elementary Schools in their locality.

The Reports refer to the prevalence of the system of domestic instruction under which the father taught his children at home as well as to the system of engaging private tutors for educating the children in the family. But no data regarding the exact extent of either of these practices is available, although there is inferential evidence to show that their prevalence was considerable.

The total extent of education among the people seems, however, to have been meagre. The women went almost without education; although there is a reference to the custom of high class Muslim families educating their daughters at home. Even among men, the Reports of 1829 state that in a total population of about 24,80,500 males covered by the enquiry, only 35,100 boys or 1.4 per cent. of the total male population was at school. But there is very strong evidence to show that the statistics given in the

Reports have been largely underestimated on account of several factors, and particularly on account of the exclusion of the pupils educated under the system of domestic instruction or private tuition. Similarly, the statistics of the Reports also conflict with the observations of the responsible officers of the period. Mr. G. L. Pendergast, a member of the Bombay Governor's Council, observed, for instance, "that there is hardly a village, great or small, throughout our territories, in which there is not at least one school, and in larger villages more; many in every town and in larger cities in every division; where young natives are taught reading, writing and arithmetic, upon a system so economical, from a handful or two of grain, to perhaps a rupee per month to the schoolmaster; according to the ability of the parents, and at the same time so simple and effectual that there is hardly a cultivator or petty dealer who is not competent to keep his own accounts with a degree of accuracy, in my opinion, beyond what we meet with amongst the lower orders in our own country; while the more splendid dealers and bankers keep their books with a degree of ease, conscientiousness and clearness, I rather think fully equal to those of any British Merchant".* Several other statements of the same type are also on record; and Shri Parulekar is probably right when he observes that while it would be wrong to take these general impressions about the extent of education at their face value, it would also be equally unrealistic to ignore them altogether and to insist on taking the official statistics alone at their face value.†

1. (2) *Modern Educational Developments in the State of Bombay prior to 1855.*—The British East India Company was established in London in 1600 A. D. and it obtained a major foothold in this State when it purchased the island of Bombay from King Charles II of England. It was essentially a commercial concern; and, therefore, it undertook no educational activities whatsoever for more than a hundred years of its existence. In pursuance of the Charter Act of 1698, it sanctioned some financial assistance to the *Charity School* established by Rev. Richard Cobbe in Bombay City in 1718 for the education of Anglo-Indian and European children. This institution was mostly supported by donations and contributions and the grant of some financial and other assistance to it was the only educational activity of the Company in this State till 1815. In that year, the European residents in Bombay City founded the Bombay Education Society with the express object of furthering the education of European and Anglo-Indian children. This Society took over the Charity School founded by Rev. Richard Cobbe (the Company promising a grant of Rs. 3,600 for its maintenance) and established other schools in Bombay City. It is worthy of note that, in spite of its limited original objective, this Society admitted Indian children also to its schools without compelling them to be present at religious instruction. Many Hindu, Parsi and Muslim children, therefore, attended the schools of the Society and by 1820, there were as many as 250 such pupils on their rolls. In 1823, however, the Society again restricted its activities to the education of European and Anglo-Indian children only because a separate society for the spread of education among the Indian people was formed in this year.

* *Vide* R. V. Parulekar: *op. cit.* p. xxi.

† *Ibid.*

The honour of having made the first official attempts to educate the Indian people on modern lines goes to Mount Stuart Elphinstone who was the Governor of Bombay from 1819 to 1827. In 1821, he established the "Hindu College" in Poona by diverting a part of the money which the Peshwas used to distribute as Dakshina to Brahmins. This was originally meant as a place of Sanskrit learning but later on developed into the Deccan College—the oldest and one of the most important modern educational institutions in the State.* He also took the first steps to give modern education to Indian children and encouraged the Bombay Education Society to extend its work among Indian children. But as soon as he realised that there were very large limitations on what the Bombay Education Society could do for Indian children, he helped to found an independent association under the name of the Bombay Native School and School Book Society (known briefly as the Bombay Native Education Society since 1827) for the express purpose of spreading modern education among the Indian people and he himself became its first President in order to give it a status and an initial momentum.

This Society started a central English school in Bombay City in 1824 which later on developed into the Elphinstone High School and the Elphinstone College—two of the oldest educational institutions in the State. It also conducted a special training class for primary teachers and, when the training was over, opened a number of primary schools in the districts. It prepared and printed the books specially required for its schools, and made them available to the public at reasonable prices. Moreover, it also started English and primary schools in several places in Bombay City and outside in order to meet the demand of the people for the new type of education that was then being introduced. In short, the Society may be said to have taken the first bold and decisive steps for the education of the Indian people on modern lines. Naturally, Elphinstone took a very keen interest in its work and tried his best to assist it. It may even be said that the success of the Society was very largely due to his support and guidance. Besides, as already stated, it was at this instance that a comprehensive survey of all the indigenous schools in the State was carried out and the records of this enquiry form one of the most important documents available on the subject in the whole of India. He wrote a long and detailed Minute on the subject of education and proposed a bold plan for organising a State system of education for Bombay. It included seven points: "(1) to improve the mode of teaching at the native schools, and to increase the number of schools; (2) to supply them with school-books; (3) to hold out some encouragement to the lower orders of natives to avail themselves of the means of instruction thus afforded them; (4) to establish schools for teaching the European sciences and improvements in the higher branches of education; (5) to provide for the preparation and publication of books of moral and physical science in native languages; (6) to establish schools for the purpose of teaching English to those disposed to pursue it as a classical language, and as a means of acquiring a knowledge of the European discoveries; (7) to hold

*For the early history of this institution and for a full account of *Dakshina*, vide R. V. Parulekar: Selections from the Records of the Government of Bombay (Education), Part I, 1819-1852.

forth encouragement to the natives in the pursuit of those last branches of knowledge*." He would have even introduced this plan *in toto*; but he was prevented from doing so partly by the opposition of his colleagues in the Council and partly by the usual reluctance of the Company to sanction funds for education. In spite of this failure, however, the actual educational achievements of Elphinstone were so significant that he has justly been described by historians as the father of the state educational enterprise in Bombay.

The Bombay Native Education Society continued its successful career till 1840 when it conducted three English schools at Panvel, Thana and Poona and as many as 115 primary schools in the City and the Districts. In that year, however, Government appointed a new body called the *Board of Education* (consisting of 7 members† of whom 4 were appointed by Government and 3 by the Bombay Native Education Society) and transferred to it, not only all the institutions formerly conducted by the Society, but also all the educational institutions which used to be conducted under the direct auspices of Government, viz. the Elphinstone Institution in Bombay City (which had both high school and college sections at this time), the Hindu College, Poona (which was now known as the Poona College), and the Purandar Schools started by Lieut. Shortrede.‡ Thus a single agency to manage all the official educational institutions in the State was created for the first time.

The Board generally continued the earlier policy of the Bombay Native Education Society and multiplied its primary schools to a considerable extent. In 1854-55, it conducted 194 vernacular schools in the districts and 6 in Bombay City with a total enrolment of 18,888 pupils. It also continued and expanded the old policy of preparing and publishing books in Indian languages and organised a depository of books for the purpose. It also developed both the Elphinstone Institution and the Poona College to a considerable extent. The former had as many as 961 students on its rolls in 1855, and the latter had 502 students. The Poona College, in particular, became a typical institution for the study of English, Sanskrit and Marathi as it had a collegiate section teaching through English; a Sanskrit department; a vernacular department; a normal class for primary teachers; and an English school. It also continued the earlier policy of encouraging the establishment of public libraries with the result that there were as many as 22 public libraries in the State in 1854-55. In all these matters, therefore, the Board may be said to have developed the policy of the Bombay Native Education Society on a larger scale and that its contribution was quantitative rather than qualitative.

In three respects, however, the Board of Education made a distinct contribution of its own. The first was the organisation of institutions for Professional and Vocational Education. The Grant Medical College was established in Bombay in 1845; an engineers' class was conducted

*Elphinstone's *Minute on Education*, para. 7.

† The official members of the Board were usually prominent officers of Government posted in Bombay City and they had to work as members of the Board in addition to their duties and in an honorary capacity.

‡ For details of these schools vide Chapter III, para. 2.

at the Elphinstone Institution from 1844 to 1847. In 1854, an Engineering Class and Mechanical School was founded in Poona; a Professorship of Jurisprudence was created in Bombay in 1855 to commemorate the memory of Sir Erskine Perry who was the President of the Board for a considerable time; and as many as five classes for the training of teachers were conducted in 1854. Secondly, the Board placed a special emphasis on the establishment of schools for the teaching of English. At this time, a knowledge of English easily secured a good job under the Government and hence the study of English was becoming very popular with Indians. The desire of the Board to spread a knowledge of the English language, therefore, met with good popular support and as many as 10 new English schools were established during this period, in addition to the schools at Poona and Thana which had been established earlier.* Thirdly, the Board tried, even at this early date, to Indianise the teaching and supervising personnel. When the first English schools were started, Europeans had naturally to be appointed as headmasters because no qualified Indians were then available to hold the posts. But as soon as a suitable person was available, the Board took steps to appoint him on the staff of English schools, even in preference to a European. Thus in 1855, the headmasters of all English schools except those at Bombay, Poona, Surat and Ahmedabad were Indians. It even desired to appoint Indians as Professors in colleges and actually appointed Shri Dadabhai Naoroji, as Professor of Mathematics and Natural Philosophy at the Elphinstone Institution. No praise can be too great for this pioneer effort in national interest.

While this expansion of official enterprise was going on, private enterprise in education was also expanding very rapidly. The first to make a start in this field were the missionaries who, as is well known, are the pioneers in almost every branch of modern educational enterprise in India. The Catholic Missions had come to Bombay island even before the East India Company; but the scale of their educational activities had not expanded greatly prior to 1855. The Protestant Missions came later, mostly after the Charter Act of 1813, but they expanded their educational work considerably by 1855. Accurate statistics are not available; but some idea of the missionary educational enterprise during this period can be had from the Report of the Bombay Provincial Committee of the Indian Education Commission. It states that, in 1855, the Free Church of Scotland had a high school and some girls' schools in Bombay City and numerous schools in the Districts of Poona, Satara and Gujarat; the Irish Presbyterian Mission had schools in Gujarat and Kathiawar; the Church Missionary Society had a high school and 12 primary schools in Bombay City and schools at Nasik, Nagar, Malegaon, and Junnar; the London Missionary Society had schools in Belgaum and Sholapur Districts and at Borsad and Bailhongal; the American Missionary Society had schools in Bombay City and Kolhapur and Ahmednagar Districts; the German Mission had schools in the Kannada area especially at Dharwar and Hubli. These schools were doing very valuable work in

modern education and their services were particularly valuable in two fields which had been ignored by the Board of Education, namely, the education of women and that of the backward classes. The missionaries rightly felt that their educational work ought to be supported by grants-in-aid from Government. The Company, however, stood by its doctrine of religious neutrality and refused to have any association with missionary schools whose object of proselytization was too obvious. This attitude was reflected in the policy of the Board of Education and no grant-in-aid was given to mission schools in the State during this period. Indian private enterprise had also been stimulated by the work of the missionaries and had started some English schools and several girls' schools in Bombay and Poona.* Its extent was, however, very small at this period. The Board of Education and the Company were generally more sympathetic to Indian educational enterprise than to that of the missions; but even Indians were not financially assisted by the Company to any material extent.

Barring this failure to take note of and assist private enterprise in the field of education, the administration of the Board of Education may be said to have been generally progressive and beneficial. But it had its own limitations. It was obviously impossible for such composite Boards of officials and non-officials, who had their own legitimate responsibilities in other fields and who worked in a purely honorary capacity and on a part-time basis, either to manage the large number of existing institutions in an efficient manner or to bring about a rapid extension of educational facilities. When, therefore, Government decided to undertake a large programme of educational expansion for the country as a whole,† it was decided that all such Boards or Councils of Education should be done away with and replaced by regular Departments of Education manned by competent and well-paid officers. Orders to this effect were issued by the Court of Directors of the East India Company in their Despatch, dated 19th July, 1854, and, in accordance with them, Mr. C. J. Erskine, C. S., was appointed the Director of Public Instruction‡ for the State of Bombay on 19th March, 1855. He took charge from the office of the Board of Education on 31st May, 1855, and with that event, a new chapter in the history of modern education in Bombay may be said to have begun.

1. (3) *Education under the Direct Control of the Government of India (1855-1871).*—Under the system of administration introduced in 1833 all financial control was centralized in the Government of India. All the revenues of the country were described as *Imperial Funds* and were credited to the Government of India and all expenditure could only be incurred under the express authority of that Government. The State Governments prepared their budgets but these had to be sanctioned by the Government of India and a State Government could not incur any expenditure, however small, or create a new post, however humble, without

* For details, see Chapter X.

‡ For details of this programme of expansion and improvement, vide Despatch, dated 19th July, 1854, known popularly as the Wood's Education Despatch.

† Since 25th October, 1951, the Department has been designated as "Department of Education" and its head has been designated as "Director of Education". For convenience, the latter terms alone have been used in this Review.

*The School at Panvel was closed in 1842. The total enrolment in the English Schools of the Board was 1,326 in 1855.

obtaining the prior approval of the Government of India. From the administrative point of view, this system was a hindrance to quick development because every matter had to be referred to the Government of India for sanction and the procedure involved delay. But it was under this inconvenient system that the Departments of Education had to start their work of educational expansion in 1855.

This system of centralised administration under the Government of India was in force for about 15 years between 1855-56 and 1870-71. During this period, four Directors of Education held office—Mr. C. J. Erskine (1855-56); Mr. E. I. Howard (1856-65); Sir Alexander Grant (1865-68); and Mr. J. B. Peile (1869-72). Each of them made a distinct contribution to the progress of education in the State.

Erskine was in office for a very short time; but even in that brief period he achieved a good deal. His first task was to carry out a survey of all educational institutions which then existed in the State and the records of this survey, which are unfortunately still unpublished, form one of the most important documents in the educational history of this State.* Secondly, he prepared a detailed and comprehensive plan for organising a net-work of graded schools for the State as a whole. It provided for the organisation of a regular system of schools beginning with humble village schools at one end and ending with colleges affiliated to the University at the other; and what is more, he planned for the provision of scholarships which would enable the more intelligent students in each type of these schools to pursue their studies in those of the next higher level. Thirdly, he did extremely valuable work in organising the Department. For this purpose, he selected and appointed all the officers of the Inspectorate; defined their powers and duties; prescribed forms and registers to be maintained; and generally speaking, prepared and enforced the first "Educational Manual" of the State. To have done all this in a period of less than a year and a half speaks volumes for his vision and energy.

Howard who succeeded Erskine was a man with a strong personality and no Director of the early years left so permanent and individual a mark on the administration as he did. He made a better and a more economical use of the slender financial resources which were then made available by Government for educational purposes and secured large additional funds by persuading Government to levy the local fund cess of one anna on every rupee of land revenue (1863-64). He was, therefore, able to bring about a very large expansion of education (particularly at the primary level) and under his regime, the total number of educational institutions conducted by the Department increased from 300 with 24,079 students in 1855-56 to 954 with 65,946 students in 1864-65.† His achievements on the qualitative side were even greater. The establishment of Bombay University in 1857 and the holding of the first Matriculation Examination in 1859 enabled him to separate the collegiate stage of education from the secondary and to carry out a thorough reform of the

existing colleges. He took considerable pains to improve the teaching of English and the general efficiency of secondary schools and himself wrote a set of English Readers which were popular in several parts of India for a long period. He re-organised the teaching of Sanskrit in the Poona College and, for the first time, compelled the Shastris of that institution to teach Sanskrit to non-Brahmins. He also strove his utmost to popularise the study of classical languages—Sanskrit and Latin—in all the secondary schools and colleges of the day. He had a large number of text-books prepared in all the languages of the State and organised a regular book department for the preparation, publication, and sale of departmental publications. It had a central depot in Bombay, branch depots at Ahmedabad, Poona and Belgaum and book-shops in almost every Government school so that the new books became readily available to the students. It was mainly due to his efforts that the services of eminent European scholars were secured for the Department. Among these may be mentioned Sir Alexander Grant who later on became the Director of Education, eminent Orientalists like Dr. Haug and Professor Buhler, and Principals like William Wordsworth (grandson of the famous poet) and Edwin Arnold. Even this brief account of his principal achievements will show that Howard will go down in history as the great Director of Education who laid the foundations of the Bombay Education Department.

Sir Alexander Grant and Peile carried the work of Howard a step forward and supplemented it in several directions (1865-71). The receipts of the local fund cess which had been imposed under Howard became available for expenditure during this period with the result that a great expansion was brought about in Primary Education* and even an extensive programme of school buildings was undertaken. Both Grant and Peile made better provision for the training of primary teachers and Peile in particular introduced such significant reforms that the modern system of training primary teachers is said to begin with him. They revised text-books; continued the earlier policies of encouraging the study of classical languages†; and made a more extensive use of Departmental patronage to develop a new literature in the regional languages of the State. They made a clear-cut distinction between the secondary and primary stages of education and introduced a regular graded system of schools, from the primary to the collegiate. They both tried to improve the efficiency of the Department. Grant, in particular, struggled hard to raise the status of Educational Officers and to secure a reasonable remuneration for them; and it was mainly owing to his efforts that the system of "graded list" posts was introduced in 1870-71 and the pay-scales of all the superior officers of the Department were revised.‡

While thus continuing and consolidating the work of Howard, both Grant and Peile made several radical departures. Howard had not been very keen on developing the education of girls. In 1857, Government

*A summary of this survey has been published in the Director's Annual Report for 1855-56.

† Statistics refer to schools and colleges of general education only.

*The number of primary schools increased from 925 with 61,729 pupils in 1864-65 to 2,738 with 1,59,628 pupils in 1870-71.

† Persian was not introduced as an additional classical language.

‡ For details vide Chapter II, Para. 2 (11).

had offered rewards to headmasters for raising the attendance of girls so that in 1864-65, there were 639 girls in Departmental schools. But Grant and Peile adopted a more vigorous policy as a result of which there were 159 girls' schools under the Department with an enrolment of 6,066 pupils in 1870-71. Moreover, it was under their regime that the first training colleges for women were organised in Bombay, Poona and Ahmedabad. Howard did not believe that Indians could be good headmasters of secondary schools. But Grant and Peile abandoned this view and appointed Indians as headmasters of all but a few of the Government high schools, Dr. R. G. Bhandarkar being the first to be so appointed. Howard was opposed to giving grant-in-aid to mission schools and, in his days, private Indian enterprise in education had just started. But Grant and Peile changed this policy, drafted Grant-in-Aid Codes in consultation with the managers of private schools and, for the first time in the history of this State, awarded grants to private schools—both missionary and Indian. Thus was laid the foundation of a system which is mainly responsible for bringing about a large expansion in Secondary and Collegiate Education in this State.*

The following table compares the general progress of education in the State between 1855 and 1871.

TABLE No. 1 (1)
General Educational Progress (1855-1871)

	1855-56		1870-71	
	Number of Institutions.	Number of Pupils.	Number of Institutions.	Number of Pupils.
1. Arts Colleges	...	2	5	297
2. Professional Colleges and Schools	...	7	6	612
3. Secondary Schools	...	30	209	15,527
4. Primary Schools	...	256	2,738	1,59,628
5. Indigenous Schools (aided)	5	55
6. Training Schools & Classes	...	5	9	490
Total	...	300	2,972	1,76,609
<i>Unrecognised</i>				
1. Secondary Schools and Primary Schools.	...	188	240	12,184
2. Indigenous Schools	...	2,387	2,922	77,000
Total	...	2,575	3,162	89,184
Grand Total	...	2,875	6,134	2,65,793

N. B.—The figures given in the above table are taken from the Report of the Indian Education Commission—General Table No. IB. They do not exactly tally with the figures given in the Departmental Report for 1870-71.

*For details, see Departmental Reports for 1865-66 to 1870-71. The system of grant-in-aid adopted was that of payment-by-results.

In 1855-56, the total expenditure of the Department was Rs. 2.99 lakhs out of which Government contributed about Rs. 1.96 lakhs. In 1870-71, the total expenditure of the Department increased to Rs. 20.91 lakhs out of which Rs. 9.48 lakhs came from Government funds and Rs. 11.43 lakhs came from local funds, and other sources, the chief among which were fees and the local fund cess.*

1 (4). *Education under the Control of the State Government (1871-1901).*—In December, 1870, the system of centralised administration was brought to an end and a new system was introduced under which the State Governments were made fully responsible for certain Departments like Education, Public Works, etc. and they were required to meet the expenditure of these Departments from certain revenues which were assigned to them and from the grants which the Government of India sanctioned in addition from time to time. The details of the financial arrangements made between the Government of India and the State Governments varied from time to time; but their net effect was that the State Governments were now given a fairly large measure of financial autonomy. Specific revenues were assigned to them and they were called upon to meet the expenditure of certain Departments like Education from these resources in the best way they could. The Government of India, however, exercised a general control over all Departments of State Administration because it was ultimately responsible to see that the country was being governed in accordance with the orders of the British Parliament.

In so far as Education is concerned, this system of decentralization brought in advantages as well as disadvantages.† On the positive side, it may be stated that this decentralization was an administrative gain. There was no longer any need to refer even small details of educational policy to the Government of India and, as most problems of the Department could now be decided by the State Government itself, the centre of gravity in educational policies shifted from Calcutta to Bombay. On the negative side, it may be stated that decentralization resulted in a financial loss to Education. The Government of India lost all its interest in Education because the State Government was now responsible for it and between 1871 and 1901, no Central grants were sanctioned for educational development. From the long-range point of view, the reform was fundamentally sound. In all countries which have adopted the federal pattern of administration, Education has invariably been regarded as a responsibility of the Federating States and in keeping with this international experience, Education has remained a responsibility of the State Governments in India also from 1870 to this date. But in so far as the period under review is concerned, the advantages of decentralization were more than negated by the disadvantages resulting from the disconti-

*In addition to this, Government incurred an expenditure of Rs. 76,000 on educational matters, but this expenditure was not subject to the control of the Department.

† With the transfer of Education to the sphere of the State Governments (then called Provincial Governments) the old expression "Imperial Funds" was abandoned and all Government grants were now described as "Provincial Funds."

nuance of the Central grants for Education and the general educational progress suffered to a great extent.

Between 1870-71 and 1901-02, the Government grant for Education showed only a small increase—from Rs. 9.48 lakhs in 1870-71 to Rs. 21.94 lakhs in 1901-02. This represents an increase of about Rs. 40,000 only per annum. But fortunately, the increase in the revenue from other sources which had been brought into existence in the earlier period was so great that it was possible to secure a good deal of educational expansion and improvement. The following table compares the total expenditure in the State in 1870-71 with that in 1901-02:—

TABLE No. 1 (2)
Educational Expenditure in 1870-71 and 1901-02

Source.	Expenditure in 1870-71.	Expenditure in 1901-02.	Percentage increase during the period.
	Rs.	Rs.	
Provincial Revenues	... 9,48,039 (45.3)	21,94,163 (28.2)	136.7
Local Board Funds	... 7,16,372 (34.3)	9,63,061 (12.4)	34.4
Municipal Funds	... 36,433 (1.7)	4,34,693 (5.6)	1,093.1
Fees	... 1,41,978 (6.8)	17,19,523 (22.1)	1,111.1
Endowments and other sources	... 2,47,960 (11.9)	24,66,025 (31.7)	894.5
Total	... 20,90,782 (100.0)	77,77,465 (100.0)	271.9

It will be seen that the smallest increase has taken place in the contribution of the local board funds and that, in consequence, the share of the local board funds in the total educational expenditure has fallen from 34.3 per cent. in 1870-71 to 12.4 per cent. in 1901-02. This was the inevitable result of the inelastic nature of the cess which was levied at a fixed rate on land revenue which, in its turn, was fixed for a period of 30 years at a time. An increase in the revenue from the local fund cess could, therefore, take place only when the land revenue assessment was revised, and consequently this source of educational finance can only show a small increase within a given period.

Next in order comes the increase in the contribution from Provincial revenues. As stated earlier, this shows only a small increase and that, in consequence, the share of the total educational expenditure borne by the State Government has fallen from 45.3 per cent. in 1870-71 to 28.2 per cent. in 1901-02. This was due to three main reasons: (1) the discontinuance of the Central grants for Education; (2) the financial difficulties that were created for the State Governments as a result of the

decentralization scheme introduced in 1870-71; and (3) the difficulties created by famine and the severe epidemic of plague which affected large areas of the State during this period.

The increase from "endowments and other sources" comes next. It must be stated that the increase shown in the above table is more apparent than real, because the receipts from this source in private schools were not included in the statistics of 1870-71, although they have been incorporated in those of 1901-02. But even after due allowance is made for this, it will have to be admitted that the rise in the expenditure from this source was considerable and that, in 1901-02, it formed the largest single item of the educational budget. The reason for the unique position of receipts from this source is to be found in the Grant-in-Aid Codes of this period. The principle now laid down was that "a school of which the State and the fees pay the whole cost is not an aided school. Either in endowment or service the aided school ought to possess some independent resources."* Accordingly, the rates of grant-in-aid were so fixed that every private school had to raise a certain part of its expenditure from public charity and the portion thus raised was shown under "endowments and other sources." As private enterprise began to grow, the income from this source naturally increased in proportion.

Next comes the rise from the contribution of the Municipalities. In 1870-71, there was no compulsion on the Municipalities to contribute for the expenditure incurred on the maintenance of primary schools in their areas, and in consequence a great injustice was done to the rural areas. Under the system in force at this time, a common account was maintained for all primary schools in a district—whether urban or rural—and the expenditure on their account was met from a joint fund in which the contributions of Government, local funds, and Municipalities were credited. As it happened, the largest expenditure from this fund was incurred in Municipal areas while the contribution of the Municipalities was the smallest in amount. This implied that large amounts of local fund cess which was raised in rural areas (and which was also meant for expenditure in rural areas) were spent in urban areas in actual practice. In 1884-85, therefore, Government decided to separate the accounts of the primary schools in rural areas from those in urban areas and to maintain a separate account for each Municipality. Up to this time, even the Bombay Municipality had very little to do with the the administration of Primary Education within its area. Every Municipality was now required to bear two-thirds of the total expenditure† on Primary Education within its area (receipts from fees etc. in Municipal schools were treated as a part of its contribution), the rest being paid by Government as a grant-in-aid. Similarly in 1888, a Joint School Committee consisting of the representatives of the Municipality and Government was appointed to administer Primary Education in the City of Bombay and it was directed that 50 per cent. of the expenditure incurred for the purpose should be met by the Bombay Municipality. This important reform had very far reaching

*Report of the Director of Public Instruction, Bombay, 1870-71, para. 113.

† The contribution of the Bombay Municipality was fixed at a lower rate than that adopted for other Municipalities because Bombay had to pay for the Police force—a charge from which the other Municipalities were exempted.

effects on Primary Education. The Municipalities were now compelled to pay their share of the cost of Primary Education and the expansion of education within their areas did not suffer. But large funds were released for use in rural areas and were utilised in opening new schools in schoolless villages or in increasing the staff of existing rural primary schools. The expansion of Primary Education in rural areas was, therefore, greatly benefited by this development during this period.

The largest of all increases has taken place in the contribution made by fees and it will be seen from the above table that the share of fees in the total educational expenditure has increased from 6.8 per cent. in 1870-71 to 22.1 per cent. in 1901-02. In the earlier period, fees in Government secondary schools and colleges were kept as low as possible. But now Government put forward the view that it was not an obligatory duty of the State to provide for Secondary and Collegiate Education; that those who received such higher education must pay for a large part of its cost; and that the fees in Government colleges and secondary schools must on that account be kept as high as possible and that the number of free-studentships should be reduced to the minimum. The Grant-in-Aid Codes of this period also prevented the private secondary schools and colleges, on the ground of preventing unhealthy competition, from charging fees which were below a certain proportion of those charged in similar Government institutions in the locality. Consequently, the total income from fees increased considerably and they now became an important source of educational finance.

As a result of these developments, the total educational expenditure in the State increased from Rs. 20.91 lakhs in 1870-71 to Rs. 77.77 lakhs in 1901-02. The resulting expansion in education is shown in the following table:—

TABLE NO. 1 (3)
General Educational Progress (1871-1901)

	1870-71		1901-02	
	Number of Institutions.	Number of Pupils.	Number of Institutions.	Number of Pupils.
1. Arts Colleges	5	297	10	1,941
2. Professional Colleges	6	612	5	1,064
3. Secondary Schools	209	15,527	494	48,533
* 4. Primary Schools	2,743	1,59,683	8,987	5,13,211
5. Training Schools	9	490	17	848
6. Other Special Schools	35	3,179
Total	2,972	1,76,609	9,548	5,68,776
Unrecognised Institutions	3,162	89,184	2,703	71,092
Grand Total	6,134	2,65,793	12,251	6,39,868

The increase in arts colleges was entirely due to private enterprise because all the new colleges that came into existence during this period were started by non-official organisations. In Professional Education, however, all the five professional colleges—two of law, one of medicine, one of engineering, and one of agriculture—were conducted by Government. The expansion in secondary schools was all due to private enterprise. In 1870-71, the total number of secondary schools was 209 out of which as many as 147 were conducted by Government. The Indian Education Commission of 1882 recommended that Government should generally withdraw from the field of Secondary Education and that “the further extension of Secondary Education in any district be left to the operation of the grant-in-aid system, as soon as that district is provided with an efficient high school, Government or other, along with its necessary feeders.”* This recommendation was accepted by Government with the result that, in 1901-02, Government conducted only 28 secondary schools with 6,582 pupils although the total number of secondary schools in the State had increased to 494 with 48,533 pupils. The increase in primary schools was due to three reasons: (1) the larger contributions of Municipalities to which a reference has already been made; (2) increased receipts from school-fees due to increased enrolment; and (3) expansion of private enterprise in this field as well. The increase in the training institutions was also entirely due to private enterprise because the number of training institutions conducted by Government remained unaltered.

An important development of this period was the transfer of Primary Education to local bodies in 1883-84. This was due to a new policy introduced by Lord Ripon, the then Governor-General of India. He recommended the establishment of local bodies in urban and rural areas and suggested that they should be given real authority and adequate resources to carry out their responsibilities. In short, he looked upon local bodies as institutions for the training of Indians in public administration. He, therefore, wanted to admit the local bodies as real and effective partners with Government in administering the country and was sure that they would succeed in a short time if Government Officers, “set themselves to foster sedulously the small beginnings of the independent political life and came to realise that the system really opened to them fairer field for the exercise of administrative and directive energy than the more autocratic system which it superseded.” He also recommended that Primary Education should be transferred to the local bodies and hoped that it would fare better under their fostering care than under the admittedly less sympathetic control of the European officers of the Department. This recommendation was accepted by Government and its results are clearly seen in the table on next page.

* Report, p. 476.

TABLE No. 1 (4)

Primary Schools by Management (1882-83 and 1901-02)

		1882-83		1901-02	
		Schools.	Scholars.	Schools.	Scholars.
1. Government	...	4,014	2,62,373	13	1,289
2. Local Boards	3,940	2,14,198
3. Municipalities	717	80,658
4. Indian States	...	1,440	82,176	2,274	1,25,436
5. Aided	...	301	17,528	1,929	84,197
6. Unaided	...	Included under those given in row No. 4 above.		114	7,433
Total	...	5,755	3,62,077	8,987	5,13,211

The other important developments of the period may be briefly told. The educational divisions were re-organised again during this period. In 1855, when the Department was created, Erskine divided the State in four divisions—Presidency Division (with Bombay as head-quarters), Deccan Division (with Poona as head-quarters), Gujarat Division (with Ahmedabad as head-quarters), and Sind. Howard kept the number of divisions unchanged. But he adopted language as the basis for the formation of a division and created a Northern Division for Gujarati area, a Central Division for the Marathi area, and a Southern Division for the Kannada area. As the Marathi Division became very big in size, it was broken up into two in 1870-71 and a fifth North-East Division was created for the Districts of Khandesh, Nasik, and Ahmednagar (with certain Indian States). In 1887-88, the number of divisions was again reduced to four and each division of the Education Department was made equivalent to a revenue division—an arrangement which continued to be in force till 1920-21. An even more important and far-reaching change in the organisation of the Department was the creation of the Indian Educational Service (or I. E. S.) and of the Provincial Educational Service (or P. E. S.) in 1896-97.* At the collegiate level, the system of payment-by-results was abandoned on a recommendation made by the Indian Education Commission. There was a considerable increase in the number of students enrolled in the professional colleges, and, what is more important, classes for the teaching of agriculture were started in the Poona Science College (since known as the Poona Engineering College). As is well-known, these classes developed into the College of Agriculture, Poona, at a later date. In the field of Secondary Education, the necessity of giving some training to secondary teachers was recognised and the Secondary Teachers' Certificate Examination (or the S. T. C. Examination) was introduced in 1899. In the early days, there was no definite rule as to when English should be taught as a subject and when it should be used as a medium of

*For details vide Chapter II, para. 9.

instruction. During this period, however, the problem was finally decided and it was laid down that English should be taught as a subject in the three lower standards of the secondary schools and that it should be used as a medium of instruction in the higher standards from Std. IV to Std. VII. But the Departmental insistence on the teaching of good English and the maintenance of 'standards' compelled the schools to devote a very large portion of their time to the teaching of English and this subject dominated the whole curriculum to such an extent that, by the end of the nineteenth century, the very object of Secondary Education was stated to be the teaching of the English language. Following a recommendation made by the Indian Education Commission that the students of secondary schools should be diverted from the academic course which led to the University through the Matriculation a School Final Examination was organised in 1889. It qualified for Government service but not for entrance to the University. However, for reasons which are well-known, this examination did not become popular and the average student of the secondary school still continued to plod along the narrow path of the Matriculation. At the primary stage, the duration of the primary course was increased from 6 to 8 years by the addition of an Infants' Class at the bottom and a Standard VII at the top. The curriculum of the primary school was revised on more occasions than one and made more interesting by the inclusion of subjects like history, geography, object lessons, etc. A simpler curriculum spread over five years was introduced for rural schools. The Primary School Certificate Examination was started and several changes were made in the system of training primary teachers. From 1871-72, night schools were regularly conducted, partly for the adult population and partly for children who were employed during the day, although the number of such schools was never appreciably large. Under the orders of the Government of India, special attention began to be paid to the education of Muslims; but, what is even more important, the backward communities consisting of the *Harijans* and the *Adiwasis* began to receive Departmental attention for the first time. *Harijans* were now admitted to all Government institutions and special schools were conducted for them in several places. All students of backward classes were admitted free and special scholarships were instituted for them. The scale of the work was very small no doubt; the pioneer character of the scheme, however, makes it worthy of a special note in this place. But far more notable results were obtained in the education of women which had just been under way in 1870-71. The popular prejudice against the education of girls was now largely overcome; the attendance of girls increased very considerably at all levels; special secondary schools for girls were started in big towns and, where these did not exist, girls began to attend the boys' schools in fairly large numbers; and the number of women taking to the profession of teaching increased considerably and several women sought admission to the nursing and medical professions as well.

1 (5). *The Government of India takes the Lead (1901-21)*.—Lord Curzon came to India as Governor-General in 1899 and being keenly interested in education, organised an intensive drive for educational reform which was kept up even by his successors. He was definitely of the opinion that the passive attitude to education which the Government of India had

adopted since the Decentralization Order of 1870 had been entirely wrong and had done untold damage. He, therefore, advocated a more active educational policy for adoption by the Government of India and created the post of a Director-General of Education who worked under the authority of the Central Government* (1899). In 1901, he convened a conference of all the Directors of Public Instruction—the first conference of its type to be held since 1855—at Simla and reviewed the entire educational situation in the country. In March, 1904, he issued his famous Resolution on Educational Policy in which he indicated the broad lines on which educational reform should be attempted. Being placed in happy financial circumstances†, he sanctioned large recurring and non-recurring grants to the State Governments in order to enable them to carry out his recommendations. In short, it may be said that Lord Curzon shifted the centre of gravity in educational matters back again to Calcutta or New Delhi. This policy dominated the field for about two decades and, between 1901 and 1921, the initiative in educational policies came, not from the individual Directors of Education, nor from the State Governments, but from the Government of India. The Government Resolution on Educational Policy, dated March, 1904, to which a reference has already been made and the Government Resolution on Educational Policy, dated February, 1913, contain the principal directives of the Government of India in respect of educational reforms and it was in accordance with them that educational reconstruction was attempted in the State of Bombay—as in all the other States of India—during this period.

Four Directors of Education held office between 1901 and 1921—Mr. E. Giles (1897-1907); Dr. F. G. Selby (1907-08); Mr. W. H. Sharp (1909-17); and Mr. J. G. Covernton (1917-21). Giles was a very able officer and later on rose to be the Director-General of Public Instruction with the Government of India. But he was in office at an unfortunate time when the State was affected by a severe famine and a terrible epidemic of plague. Besides, the effect of the Central drive for educational reconstruction had not yet begun to be felt when he left the State service. Selby was Director for too short a time. But Sharp remained in office for a longer period and it was during his regime that the bulk of the Central grants was received and the larger part of the educational reconstruction of this period was carried out. He has, therefore, left a very deep impression on the administration of the Department and his zeal and capacity easily mark him out as the most outstanding Director of this period. Covernton was in office at a period of transition. This, coupled with the comparatively shorter tenure of his office, left him but little time to achieve worthwhile results. All the same, his administration was fairly eventful and progressive. He would be remembered as the last independent Director to have held office in this State because, with the transfer Education to Indian control in 1921, the leadership

*The Despatch of 1854 created Departments of Education in the States; but it failed to create one at the Centre. This deficiency was partially remedied by Lord Curzon.

†In early twentieth century, the Government of India had a series of surplus budgets.

in educational policies which had remained with the Directors of Education from 1855 to 1921 was constitutionally transferred to the Indian Ministers of Education.

In the field of University Education, Curzon appointed the Indian Universities Commission in 1902 and, on receipt of its Report, passed the Indian Universities Act in 1904 with the double object of reforming University Education and increasing the official control over them. The University of Bombay, as reconstituted under this Act, had a much smaller Senate with a strength of 100 Fellows (against 296 in 1902). Of these 20 only were to be elected—10 by registered graduates and 10 by the Faculty. A Syndicate was statutorily constituted and stricter conditions for the affiliation of colleges were prescribed. The University was now permitted to undertake teaching functions and, above all, the Government of India voluntarily decided to sanction grants to universities, although there was no specific provision in the University Act itself. This reconstitution coupled with the financial assistance* which came concurrently with it enabled the University to execute a substantial programme of reform. The efficiency of its administration was considerably improved; payment began to be made to Fellows for attending meetings of the University as well as for journeys undertaken in connection with the work of the University; the system of triennial inspections of affiliated colleges was adopted; large additions were made to the University buildings and library; eminent men from Europe or elsewhere were invited to deliver courses of lectures; special lectures for M. A. students were organised and entrusted to professors selected mainly from the staffs of colleges; a University School of Economics and Sociology was organised; a Research Fund was instituted for assistance to original workers and a programme of publications (or of giving assistance to the publication of approved books) was undertaken. Mention must also be made here of the introduction of military training for university students (1917). In short, it may be stated that this was the first important period in the development of the Bombay University which, during the first fifty years of its life, had done nothing beyond holding examinations and awarding degrees. There was also a general improvement in the efficiency of the arts and science colleges during this period, partly on account of the reforms in University administration to which a reference has already been made and partly on account of the larger funds that were now made available to all colleges—Government or private—through larger collections from fees and more liberal grants-in-aid. Similarly, in the field of professional colleges, the notable events of this period were the creation of the Royal Institute of Science, Bombay, the Sydenham College of Commerce and Economics, Bombay, and the Secondary Teachers' College, Bombay.

In Secondary Education, Curzon gave two important directives. Firstly, he opined that the policy of withdrawal which had been recommended by the Indian Education Commission of 1882 was wrong and stressed "the extreme importance of the principle that in each branch of education

*No grant was given to the University in 1901-02; but during this period, grants to the tune of several lakhs of rupees were sanctioned and in 1921-22, the annual expenditure of the University stood at Rs. 3,71,784 out of which Rs. 67,000 came from Government funds.

Government should maintain a limited number of institutions, both as models for private enterprise to follow and in order to uphold a high standard of education".* Secondly, he laid down a new policy in respect of private schools. Hitherto, the Department had exercised its rights of inspection and control over the aided schools only and the unaided schools were left entirely to themselves. Curzon desired to bring every secondary school under Government control, irrespective of the fact whether it was given a grant-in-aid or not. Hence he put forward the view that every school must seek "recognition" from the Department and that strict conditions should be prescribed for "recognition", instead of for grant-in-aid. He also suggested that the conditions for recognition should be strictly enforced by prohibiting transfers of pupils from unrecognised to recognised schools, by increasing the amount of grant-in-aid to recognised institutions, and by strengthening the inspecting staff.

Both of these directives had to be carried out by the Government of Bombay. Regarding the first, it may be stated that the number of secondary schools conducted by the Department increased from 28 in 1901-02 to 35 in 1921-22 and their enrolment increased from 6,582 to 11,266. The salaries of teachers in Government secondary schools were substantially raised; better buildings were constructed; equipment was provided on a lavish scale; and wherever possible, hostels were attached to Government high schools in order to mould the character of the students studying therein. Large non-recurring expenditure was incurred for the purpose and even the recurring expenditure on Government secondary schools increased from Rs. 3.55 lakhs in 1901-02 to Rs. 10.02 lakhs in 1921-22. Some of this expenditure, such as that on hostels, did not bring in an adequate return. But it must be admitted that the efficiency of Government schools increased considerably during this period. With regard to the second, the Grant-in-Aid Code was revised in 1911. The new Code brought all the secondary schools in the State under a very rigid system of Departmental supervision. Admission rules were made very strict and several rules of discipline were introduced with the main object of keeping the conduct of teachers and students under effective control so as to prevent their participation in any form of political activities. For some time, all teachers from recognised schools, irrespective of their qualifications or status were required to sign forms of 'Declaration of Loyalty'. The political implications of these new methods of control were greatly resented by public opinion and consequently a few changes were made later and, in particular, the form of 'Declaration of Loyalty' was discontinued. Fees were generally raised in all secondary schools—Government and private—but there was no proportionate increase sanctioned in the number of free-studentships. The system of payment-by-results which had been introduced about fifty years ago was now abandoned† and a new system of block or proportional grants was introduced. On the whole, the grant-in-aid given to private schools became more liberal than during the earlier period, although the general complaint was that the increase in the amount of grant-in-aid was not

proportional to the increase in the cost of living that had taken place during this period and that no steps had been taken to give security of service to teachers in private schools or to make any old-age provision for them.

A few other reforms that were carried out in the field of secondary education may be briefly noted here. A better provision for the training of secondary teachers was now made by the establishment of the Secondary Training College, Bombay, which is referred to already and by the institution of the S. T. C. Diploma (or briefly the S. T. C. D.). The School Final Examination which was instituted in 1889 used to be conducted by the Bombay University till 1904. It was then taken over by the Department and conducted till 1919 when a Joint Examination Board (consisting of five representatives of the University, three persons nominated by Government and two school masters co-opted by the remaining eight members) was constituted to conduct the new Matriculation Examination with which the School Final Examination was merged. This Joint Board* may be regarded as the fore-runner of the present S. S. C. E. Board. Several curricular reforms were also carried out. Physical Education began to receive greater attention; drawing and craft-work was emphasised and still greater emphasis was laid on the proper teaching of the physical sciences. But, by far, the largest concentration of effort was made on the teaching of English. Unfortunately, the results were far from satisfactory and if the reports of examiners are any guide to the attainments of candidates, the standard of English in 1921-22 was not very different from that in 1901-02, if not lower.

In the field of Primary Education, Curzon found that, under the old policy, the major burden for financing Primary Education had been thrown on local funds.† As these were comparatively inelastic, and meagre, he rightly concluded that Primary Education would not make adequate progress unless larger grants were made available from Central or State funds. He, therefore, sanctioned very large recurring and non-recurring grants to Primary Education and his policy was continued by his successors with an even greater zeal. The Government of Bombay accepted these policies and even assigned special grants from its own surplus revenues and augmented the funds contributed by Government of India for this purpose. The expenditure on Primary Education in Bombay State increased from Rs. 35.09 lakhs in 1901-02 (of this only Rs. 8.28 lakhs came from Government funds) to Rs. 149.52 lakhs in 1921-22 (out of which as much as Rs. 98.22 lakhs came from Government funds). The total expenditure thus increased to about four times while the contribution from Provincial funds increased to about twelve times. A part of this increase in expenditure was utilized for bringing about expansion so that the number of primary schools increased from 8,987 schools with 5,13,211 pupils in 1901-02, to 12,622 schools with 7,98,508 pupils in 1921-22 which means an overall increase of about 50 per cent. But, by far, the largest part of the increase in expenditure was devoted to provision of

*Government Resolution on Educational Policy, para. 13.

† This system was abandoned, during this period, at all stages of education.

*This was done away with in 1924.

† Since 1871, it had been laid down that Government grant to local funds should not exceed 1/3rd of the total expenditure on Primary Education.

buildings, supply of equipment, establishment of additional training institutions for primary teachers and improvement of their remuneration. This last reform was made all the more necessary by the rise in the cost of living during the First World War. In 1901-02, the average salary of a primary teacher in Bombay was between Rs. 9 and Rs. 10. But in 1921-22, it rose to Rs. 33 and he came to be looked upon as the most well-paid primary teacher in the whole of India.

Another outstanding feature of this period was that Indian public opinion began to press for the introduction of Compulsory Primary Education. Sir Ibrahim Rahimtoola demanded the introduction of Compulsory Primary Education in the City of Bombay (1902); but his proposals were finally turned down in 1909, after a special Committee appointed for the purpose had enquired into the problem and reported against it.* Shri Gopal Krishna Gokhale moved a bill in the Central Legislature for the gradual introduction of Compulsory Primary Education throughout the country (1912). But the Bill was thrown out and in the Resolution on Educational Policy, 1913, the Government of India declared that it refused to recognise the principle of compulsory education for "financial and administrative reasons of decisive weights."† In spite of this verdict, the public in Bombay continued to agitate for Compulsory Primary Education and a Bill for the introduction of compulsory education in Municipal areas—known popularly as the Patel Act because it was moved by Shri Vithalbhai Patel—was passed by the Bombay Legislative Council in 1918. Similarly, there was a keen demand for Free Primary Education as well. But the Government Resolution on Educational Policy, 1913, declared that "the time has not yet arrived when it is practicable to dispense wholly with fees without injustice to the many villages which are waiting for the provision of schools. The fees derived from those pupils who can pay them are now devoted to the maintenance and expansion of Primary Education, and a total remission of fees would involve to a certain extent a more prolonged postponement of a provision of schools in villages without them.....Local governments have been requested to extend the application of the principle of free elementary education amongst the poorer and more backward sections of the population. Further than this, it is not possible at present to go."**

A significant achievement in this field was the large increase in the number of primary schools and their enrolment to which a reference has already been made. This was due partly to more liberal contribution given by the Municipalities whose finances improved materially during this period.‡ In the case of the District Local Boards, however, the inelasticity of their revenue would have prevented all expansion; but since 1912 Government adopted a very liberal policy of grant-in-aid, abandoned the earlier base of a proportional grant at one-third (raised

to one-half since 1903) of the total approved expenditure, and directed that, after the Local Boards had contributed their fixed quota at four pies in every rupee of land revenue the whole of the additional expenditure would be borne from Government funds‡. The expansion and improvement of Primary Education achieved during this period in the rural areas of the State is due mainly to this liberal policy of grant-in-aid adopted by Government.

The important achievements in other fields may be briefly enumerated. In the Departmental organisation, a number of special Inspectorates were newly created. A special functional Inspectorate for Girls' Schools was organised and a special officer was appointed for Urdu Girls' Schools, an Inspector for Anglo-Indian and European Schools was appointed in 1906 and the post was assigned to the I. E. S.; a special Inspector of Drawing and Craft-work was appointed in 1914; a special Inspector for Science Teaching was also appointed in 1914;* after a good deal of correspondence which began in 1911, a scheme for medical inspection of school children was sanctioned in 1920-21 and six Medical Inspectors were appointed in May, 1921.† In 1920-21, the number of divisions was again raised to five by creating a new division with head-quarters in Bombay—an arrangement that continued till 1945-46—and the I. E. S. was largely Indianised.** The curriculum of primary schools was also revised and subjects like drawing and nature-study were introduced, but the Rural or 'Modi' standards were abandoned on the ground that they did not prove successful. The special attention that was being paid to the education of Muslims during the earlier period was now intensified. The education of women made still further progress and there was a substantial increase in the number of girls attending secondary schools and colleges. But the most notable event in this field was the establishment of the S. N. D. T. Indian Women's University by Dr. D. K. Karve, in 1916. A great impetus was given to the education of the backward classes and some good work was organised for the amelioration of the so-called criminal tribes. The methods adopted in this field were more or less the same as in the earlier period. But as the conscience of the Hindu Society had been greatly awakened during this period more intensive non-official attempts began to be made to abolish untouchability and to improve the lot of the backward classes. These were having a great, though indirect, effect on official enterprise also and the foundations for organisation of a large-scale movement were being laid.

The following table compares the educational expenditure in 1901-02 with that in 1921-22:

*D. M. Desai: Universal, Compulsory, and Free Primary Education in India, pp. 40-47.

†Government Resolution on Educational Policy, 1913, Para. 10.

** Ibid.

‡ Besides, it must be noted that the grant-in-aid to Municipalities on account of Primary Education was raised from $\frac{1}{3}$ to $\frac{1}{2}$ of the total expenditure under G. R., E. D., No. 1749, dated 29-8-1903.

‡J. P. Naik: History of the Local Fund Cess (appropriated to Education) in the Province of Bombay, p. 95.

*The post was abolished in 1931 and the work of inspecting science teaching was entrusted to the general inspectorate.

† Owing to financial stringency, all the posts were abolished in August, 1922.

** For details, see Chapter II, para. 10.

TABLE No. 1 (5)

Educational expenditure in 1901-02 and 1921-22

Source	Expenditure in 1901-02	Expenditure in 1921-22
	Rs.	Rs.
Provincial Revenues	21,94,163 (28.2)	1,69,88,259 (57.4)
Local Board Funds	9,63,061 (12.4)	11,52,442 (3.9)
Municipal Funds	4,34,693 (5.6)	34,34,545 (11.6)
Fees	17,19,523 (22.1)	43,28,463 (14.6)
Endowments and other sources	24,66,025 (31.7)	36,99,235 (12.5)
Total	77,77,465 (100.0)	2,96,02,944 (100.0)

N. B.—The statistics of 1901-02 include figures for those Indian States whose education was looked after by the Department. But those for 1921-22 are for the British districts only.

It will be seen that the largest increase has taken place in the contribution from Provincial funds. It implies that, during this period, Government assumed the major responsibility for financing education. This development was made possible partly by the easy financial circumstances that prevailed at this time and partly by the large recurring and non-recurring grants sanctioned by the Centre which may be described as the most significant and far-reaching achievement of the period. The following is the list of grants sanctioned by the Government of India for the expansion and improvement of education in the State of Bombay between 1901 and 1921:

	Rs.
1. General grant (1902-03)—Non-recurring	7,77,770
2. Grant for Technical Education (1906-07)—Recurring	1,67,000
3. Grant to Bombay University—Recurring	43,000
4. Grant for Primary and Secondary Education (1901)—Recurring	6,00,000
5. Grant for Primary Education (1905-06)—Recurring	5,00,000
6. Grant for expenditure on Higher Education (1911-12)—Non-recurring	11,02,000
7. Durbar grant for popular education (1912-13)—Recurring	6,70,000
8. Grant for private Secondary Schools (1912-13)—Recurring	60,000
9. Grant for Hostels (1912-13)—Non-Recurring	3,00,000

	Rs.
10. Grant for improvement and expansion of education (1913-14)—Recurring	5,93,000
11. Grant for Hostels (1913-14)—Non-recurring	7,75,000
12. Grant for improvement of education (1914-15)—Recurring	1,00,000
13. Grant for improvement of education (1913-14)—Non-Recurring	31,00,000
14. Grant for improvement of training and pay of teachers (1917-18)—Recurring	2,50,000
15. Grant for development of primary education (1918-19)—Recurring	4,00,000

(N. B.—Small grants sanctioned for various purposes have not been included in the above table. All these grants along with their unspent balances (amounting to about Rs. 45 lakhs) were merged with the Provincial Revenue in 1921-22).

The increase in Municipal contributions is equally noticeable and it reflects the increasing trend of urbanisation and urban prosperity that became prominent during this period. The increase in fees is due partly to the increase in fee rates and partly to the increase in enrolment. As in the preceding period, the contribution of the Local Boards shows the smallest increase. This is, however, inevitable on account of the inelastic nature of their revenues. On the whole, however, the total educational expenditure shows an increase of about three times between 1901-02 and 1921-22.

During the First World War the cost of living increased very materially and it was, therefore, necessary to spend a much larger amount even for the maintenance of those educational facilities which already existed in 1901-02. It would, therefore, be wrong to expect an expansion of education in proportion to the rise in expenditure. Hence the total expansion between 1901 and 1921 was about 50 per cent. only as the following table will show:—

TABLE No. 1 (6)
General Educational Progress (1901-1921)

	1901-02		1921-22	
	Number of Institutions.	Number of Pupils.	Number of Institutions.	Number of Pupils.
1. Arts Colleges	10	1,941	10	4,829
2. Professional Colleges	5	1,064	7	2,595
3. Secondary Schools	494	48,533	463	77,607
4. Primary Schools	8,987	5,13,211	12,622	7,98,508
5. Training Schools	17	848	43	3,015
6. Other Special Schools	35	3,179	164	10,323
Total	9,548	5,68,776	13,309	8,96,877
Unrecognised				
1. Advanced	111	4,680	88	2,737
2. Elementary	2,592	66,412	1,503	58,778
Total	2,703	71,092	1,591	61,515
Grand Total	12,251	6,39,868	14,900	9,58,392

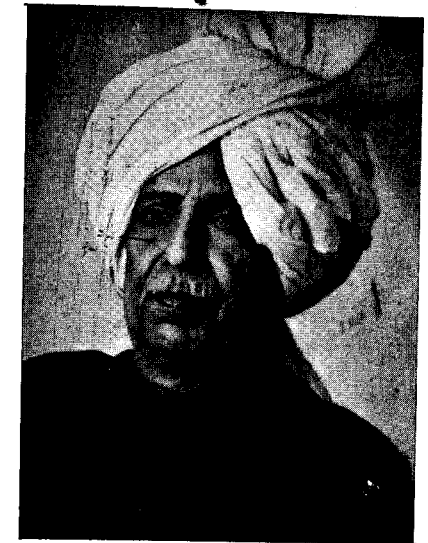
1 (6). *Education under Dyarchy.*—With the introduction of the reforms under the Government of India Act, 1919, a great advance was made in the constitutional history of India. Under this scheme, the whole field of State administration was divided into two parts; one part, called *reserved*, included the so-called major departments of Revenue, Police, Finance, etc. and was continued under the Governor who was ultimately responsible to the Secretary of State; and the other part, called *transferred*, included most of the nation-building departments like Agriculture, Education, etc. and was handed over to the control of Indian Ministers who were responsible to the Legislature which now had a large elected majority. Hence the system was known as *Dyarchy* or double rule, and with its introduction in 1921, the Indian people obtained the right to control their education. This was a revolutionary change of immense significance for the development of education and with it a new chapter was opened in the history of education in this State.

Five Ministers of Education held office during this period: Shri (now Sir) Raghunath P. Paranjpe (1921-23); Shri B. V. Jadhav (1923-27); Shri Harilalbhai Desai (1927-28); Moulvi Rafiuddin Ahmed (1928-32); and Sir Siddappa T. Kambli (1932-37). Three Directors of Education assisted the Ministers during this period; Mr. F. B. P. Lory (1921-30); Mr. R. H. Beckett (1930-34); and Mr. W. Grieve (1934-40). As stated earlier, the leadership in educational policies now passed from the Directors of Public Instruction to the Ministers of Education and hence it is not necessary now to discuss the contributions of individual Directors. Among the Ministers, Sir Raghunath Paranjpe is known for the impetus he gave to the problem of Compulsory Primary Education and for steering the Bombay Primary Education Act through the Legislature. Shri B. V. Jadhav and Shri Harilalbhai Desai are remembered for implementing the provisions of the Bombay Primary Education Act, 1923, and for steering through the reconstruction of the University of Bombay under the Bombay University Act of 1928. The outstanding event of the regime of Moulvi Rafiuddin Ahmed was the organisation of the B. E. S. Class I to replace the vanishing I. E. S. Sir Siddappa Kambli was in office at a time when the effects of the world economic depression were being felt and it was his unfortunate duty to cut and to retrench rather than to reform or to expand. But he and Shri Jadhav are specially known for supporting the cause of the non-advanced classes and for securing to them several concessions in the form of scholarships and reservation of seats in Government educational institutions.

It was but natural that very large expectations of educational advance should be formed with the transfer of Education to Indian control. But unfortunately, several difficulties prevented the achievement of substantial results. To begin with, the Indian Ministers did not get adequate control over the I.E.S. In 1921, all the keyposts in the Department were held by the officers of the Indian Educational Service which was recruited by the Secretary of State for India and was under his direct control. The Indian Ministers naturally felt that they would not be able to work out their policy unless they were given an effective control over all the educational services including the I. E. S. But this demand was refused and



Shri R. P. Paranjpe
(1921-23)



Shri B. V. Jadhav
(1923-27)



Shri Harilalbhai Desai
(1927-28)



Moulvi Rafiuddin Ahmed
(1928-32)



Shri Siddappa T. Kambli
(1932-37)

not only was the I. E. S. allowed to exist under the direct control of the Secretary of State, but every Officer in the Service was given a full guarantee that his rights and privileges would not be adversely affected by the transfer of Education to Indian control. The only concession made in this respect was to discontinue all future recruitment to the I. E. S. from 1924. But this was a very slow method of eliminating the Service and right up to 1937, the post of the Director of Public Instruction continued to be held by an Englishman and most of the key-posts in the Department were also held by I. E. S. Officers throughout the period under review. Secondly, the Ministers of Education of this period could not secure full public support or even the major attention of the public. The Indian National Congress had now grown to be the largest and the most powerful political organisation in the country. But it considered the Reforms of 1919 unsatisfactory, boycotted the elections, and organised the Non-Co-operation Movement in 1921. Later on, it had to continue its struggle with Government and organise the Civil Disobedience Movement in 1930. Throughout this period, therefore, the Congress remained outside the Legislature and did not agree to work out the Reforms of 1919. Consequently, the Ministers of this period belonged to smaller political parties and did not have that influence with the public which was essential for the planning and execution of far-reaching programmes. Besides, difficulties also arose because the political struggles organised by the Congress dominated national life throughout the period under review and the attention of the public was concentrated more on political than on educational issues. Thirdly, this was a period of general financial difficulties. Under the Government of India Act, 1919, income-tax was declared to be a totally Central source of revenue. Hence, the Government of Bombay, which used to get large funds from income-tax collected in the State in the earlier period, found itself in financial difficulties and proposals for retrenchment had to be taken up as early as in 1922. Hardly had the effects of this retrenchment drive died down when an unprecedented world economic depression began in 1929. Its effects became visible in India in 1930 and large reductions had, therefore, to be made in the State budget almost forthwith. The effects of this depression were off by 1937; but in that very year, the system of Dyarchy itself came to an end. Moreover, the portfolio of Finance was a reserved subject under the Act of 1919 and hence the Indian Ministers were not generally able to secure the finances necessary for the development of education. It will be seen, therefore, that the advantages of the transfer of Education to Indian control were heavily counterbalanced by several financial, administrative and political difficulties. It is, therefore, no matter for surprise if the original expectations of educational advance failed to materialise and if the achievements of the Education Ministers under Dyarchy were not appreciable. Rather, the causes of the failure were inherent in the system and the situation itself.

Another important development of this period which hindered the expansion of education was the change in the role of the Government of India. The Government of India Act, 1919, terminated the control which the Government of India used to exercise on the educational policies of the State Governments in the past on the ground that the Indian Ministers

of Education could not simultaneously be responsible to the Central Government on one hand and the State Legislatures on the other. This decision need not necessarily have led to a complete reversal of the policy adopted between 1901 and 1921. But as the later events showed the termination of Central control over Education led to a *total absence of Central interest* in Education and also to a *total discontinuance of Central grants* which had secured such good results in the earlier period. The Central Advisory Board of Education which had been created in 1920 was abolished, as a measure of retrenchment, in 1923; and for the same reason the Department of Education in the Central Government ceased to have an independent existence and was amalgamated with other Departments. The Quinquennial Reviews of Education continued to be published as before; but the Government of India now made no attempt even to co-ordinate the educational activities in the different States. In short, the Government of India assumed the most passive role known to the history of education. This apathy on the part of Government of India continued throughout the period under review and added materially to the difficulties of the Indian Ministers of Education. The following statistics compare the educational situation in 1921 with that in 1937:—

TABLE No. 1 (7)
General Educational Progress (1921 to 1937)

		1921-22		1936-37	
		Number of Institutions.	Number of Pupils.	Number of Institutions.	Number of Pupils.
1. Arts Colleges	...	10	4,829	15	10,010
2. Professional Colleges	...	7	2,595	12	3,347
3. Secondary Schools	...	463	77,607	639	1,27,087
4. Primary Schools	...	12,632	7,98,508	12,901	11,40,299
5. Training Schools and other special Schools	...	207	13,338	372	18,826
Total	...	13,309	8,96,877	13,939	12,99,569
Unrecognised	...	1,591	61,515	670	36,320
Grand Total	...	14,900	9,58,392	14,609	13,35,889

It will be seen that the overall expansion of education during this period is about 39 per cent. only and that it is even less than that achieved during the preceding period. In Primary Education, where the best results were anticipated, there is only a small increase in the number of schools and an increase of 43 per cent. only in the number of pupils. It is of course true that the statistics of 1921-22 include those of Sind while those of 1936-37 exclude them. But even when allowance is made

for this factor, the educational progress between 1921 and 1937 does not appear to be satisfactory.

The causes of this failure were mainly financial as can be gathered from the following table which compares the educational expenditure in 1921-22 with that in 1936-37:—

TABLE No. 1 (8)
Educational Expenditure in 1921-22 and 1936-37

Source.	Expenditure in 1921-22.	Expenditure in 1936-37.
	Rs.	Rs.
Provincial Revenues ...	1,69,88,259 (57.4)	1,55,51,740 (41.4)
Board Funds ...	45,86,987 (15.5)	70,28,396 (18.7)
Fees ...	43,28,463 (14.6)	95,93,470 (25.5)
Other Sources ...	36,99,235 (12.5)	54,28,233 (14.4)
Total ...	2,96,02,944 (100.0)	3,76,01,839 (100.0)

The contribution of the State Government fell from Rs. 169.88 lakhs in 1921-22 to Rs. 155.51 lakhs in 1936-37. Besides, the State Government contributed only 41.4 per cent. of the total educational expenditure in 1936-37 while it contributed as much as 57.4 per cent. in 1921-22. It was, however, fortunate that this fall in the contribution of the State Government was made good to a large extent by other sources. The local bodies in general and the Municipalities in particular increased their contribution by about Rs. 35 lakhs so that their share in the total expenditure increased from 15.5 per cent. in 1921-22 to 18.7 per cent. in 1936-37. Fees made an even larger contribution of about Rs. 52 lakhs so that their share in the total expenditure rose from 14.6 per cent. in 1921-22 to 25.5 per cent. in 1936-37. The contribution of all "other sources" also showed a comparatively small rise of Rs. 18 lakhs, and their share in the total expenditure rose from 12.5 per cent. to 14.4 per cent. The expansion that we see in this period is, therefore, mostly due to these increased contributions from the local bodies and the public.

With these preliminary observations that explain the background against which the work of the Indian Ministers of Education under Dyarchy will have to be interpreted, the principal educational achievements of this period may be briefly summarised.

In so far as the *scope, functions, and organization of the Department* is concerned, a number of very significant changes were now brought about. Foremost among these was the change of leadership in educational policy. Hitherto, the Director of Education was not merely the executive head of the Department. The responsibility of shaping educational policies also rested with him because he was the sole adviser of Government in all educational matters. With the transfer of Education to ministerial control, the leadership in policies was naturally assumed by the Minister of Education and the Director of Public Instruction became only the executive head of the Department.

Secondly, all the Departmental services were considerably reorganised during this period. A reference has already been made to the large scale Indianisation of the I. E. S., which had already been effected prior to 1921, and to the discontinuance of the future recruitment to the service from 1924. The old Provincial Educational Service was now reorganised under the name of the Bombay Educational Service with a view to replacing both the I. E. S. and the P. E. S. of the earlier days. In 1931, the B. E. S. was divided into two classes—Class I and Class II—the former of which was intended partly for the superior posts in the Department and partly for replacing the I. E. S. The scales of pay of all ranks of services were also revised, they were up-graded first in the earlier part of the period and down-graded again when the world economic depression set in. Finally, a still greater progress in Indianising the superior posts was achieved during this period and by 1936-37 only eleven European Officers were left in the Department.

At the *collegiate level*, the most important event of the period was the reconstitution of the Bombay University. For this purpose, a Committee was appointed under the Chairmanship of Sir Chimanlal Setalvad to inquire into the problem and, on receipt of its Report, the Bombay University Act of 1928 was passed. Under the new scheme, the Senate of the University consisted of about 150 Fellows (excluding donors and nominees of donors), of whom 12 were ex-officio, 40 were nominated and the rest were elected; an Academic Council was created for the first time; and the Government grant to the University was raised to Rs. 1,17,000. During this period, the University extended its teaching activities by the establishment of a Department of Chemical Technology and carried out several reforms which included provision for physical training and medical inspection of students, greater provision for research, organisation of inter-collegiate sports and activities, and a rapid development of a University Training Corps. Professional Education also showed great progress, the number of professional colleges increasing from 7 in 1921-22 to 12 in 1936-37. The new colleges established include the H. L. College of Commerce, Ahmedabad; Law Colleges opened at Poona, Ahmedabad, and Surat* and the G. S. Medical College, Bombay, which was conducted by the Bombay Corporation. This period is, therefore, significant as witnessing the entry of Municipal and private enterprise in the field of Professional Education at the collegiate level.

*There was a Law College in Kolhapur also.

At the *secondary level*, the policy of maintaining Government secondary schools which had been adopted in the earlier period was now reversed and the number of Government schools was reduced to 22 in 1936-37 as against 35 in 1921-22. The S. T. C. Diploma was discontinued and the Secondary Training College, Bombay, was affiliated to the University for the degree of B.T.* The emphasis on the use of English as a medium of instruction was now largely abandoned. By 1936-37, most of the secondary schools in the State (except a few, mostly in Bombay City, which had special reasons for maintaining English as the medium of instruction) used the mother-tongue as the medium of instruction for history, geography and classical languages, while mathematics and science were taught through English in the higher standards only. The emphasis on the teaching of English as a subject, however, still continued; but even in 1936-37, the "standard of English in secondary schools had not improved in recent years in spite of the amount of time spent on English in the average secondary school".† Lastly, greater attention now began to be paid to the improvement of private secondary schools which formed a large bulk of all the secondary schools in the State. This was a welcome change no doubt; but the prevailing financial stringency coupled with a considerable increase in the number of private schools led to an actual diminution in the grant-in-aid per pupil. The private institutions had, therefore, to draw upon fees and public donations as the principal sources of their financial support. Owing to the economic depression, the salaries to teachers in Government schools were reduced. This, combined with the decrease in grant-in-aid, adversely affected the remuneration of teachers in private schools also. Besides, the Department was also unable to secure fixity of tenure or suitable old-age provision for teachers in private schools. Consequently, the general lot of teachers in private secondary schools which was far from satisfactory during this period, formed a constant subject of discussion and representation by the Teachers' Associations.

At the *primary stage*, very bold reforms were contemplated and it was decided to explore the possibilities of introducing Universal Compulsory Primary Education throughout the State. In 1920, the City of Bombay Primary Education Act had been passed with the object of introducing compulsory education within the limits of the City. In 1921, therefore, a Committee was appointed, under the Chairmanship of Sir Narayan Chandavarkar, to report on the problem in so far as the mofussil areas were concerned. On receipt of its Report, the Bombay Primary Education Act, 1923, was passed and made applicable to the State as a whole (excluding the City of Bombay). This revolutionary piece of legislation replaced the Patel Act, but it provided for the introduction of compulsory education in urban as well as in rural areas. Its salient features were the following:—

- (1) The Act divided the Municipalities into two groups. The major Municipalities were designated as Local Authorities and were allowed

* Secondary Teachers' Training Colleges had also been opened at Kolhapur and Baroda.

† Report of the Director of Public Instruction, Bombay, 1936-37, p. 76.

to manage the Primary Education in their areas. The minor Municipalities which were designated as non-Local Authority Municipalities were deprived of their powers and the District Local Boards concerned were required to manage the Primary Education in their areas.

(2) The Local Authority Municipalities and the District Local Boards were given a very large measure of control over Primary Education. They were allowed to appoint their own Administrative Officers and to manage all administration. Besides, they were also placed in charge of inspection and all the old inspecting staff of Government (in so far as primary schools were concerned) was transferred to the local bodies.

(3) In the case of non-Local Authority Municipalities, the contribution of the Municipality concerned was fixed at one-third of the total expenditure and the balance was paid by Government. In the case of the Local Authority Municipalities, the Government grant was fixed at 50 per cent. of the approved expenditure. In the case of the District Local Boards, all the expenditure incurred by Government just before the transfer of control, was given as a fixed grant (called the datum-line grant) and of the increase, two-thirds was given as grant-in-aid from Government.

(4) The initiative in the matter of introducing compulsion was ordinarily left to the local body concerned. If, however, a local body failed to fulfil this obligation, the Act authorised Government to call upon the local body to prepare a scheme of compulsion within a specified period. If it still failed to prepare the scheme, the Act gave power to Government to prepare and execute schemes of compulsion through its own officers and to recover the expenses thereof from the local body concerned.

In short, the objective of the Act was to set up a machinery for the introduction of Universal Compulsory Primary Education at an early date. In order to secure the successful working of this Act, Government passed some complementary legislation for the reorganisation of the local bodies. A special Act for the administration of the major Municipalities, designated as the Bombay Municipal Borough's Act, was passed in 1925; and the Bombay District Municipal Act of 1901 which governed the minor Municipalities was suitably amended. Similarly, the Bombay District Local Boards' Act, 1923, was passed for the rural areas. These laws made the local bodies more democratic and gave them additional resources in order to enable them to meet their liabilities under the Bombay Primary Education Act, 1923, as well as to enable them to discharge their other responsibilities in a more efficient manner.

The results of the working of the Act were, however, disappointing. Four Municipalities (Surat, Bandra, Satara City and Dhulia) had introduced compulsory education under the Patel Act; the Bombay City, which had a special Act of its own, introduced compulsion in two Wards only in 1925; and only four other Municipalities (Ahmednagar City, Sholapur, Broach, and Poona City) introduced compulsory education under the Act of 1923. Of the District Local Boards, West Khandesh was the only Board to introduce compulsory education for boys only in all villages of 1,000 and over and in all non-Local Authority Municipalities. Even on a voluntary

basis, the expansion of Primary Education was but meagre. The Chandavarkar Committee had recommended that the attendance in primary schools should be doubled in ten years. But in actual practice, the enrolment increased by about 50 per cent. only in a period of 16 years. Besides, grave complaints were made regarding the improper use of the large powers of control which had been transferred to the local bodies under the Act; and it was being urged towards the end of the period under review that Government should withdraw at least some of these powers with a view to improving the administration of Primary Education.

It must also be pointed out that the financial stringency of this period not only crippled the programmes of Compulsory Primary Education, but had other undesirable results as well. During this period, the pay-scales of primary teachers were first revised and then lowered as a result of the economic depression. Besides, training facilities were largely curtailed and the output of trained teachers was deliberately reduced with a view to economising on expenditure. Similarly, the building programmes of primary schools had to be suspended almost completely. On the whole, therefore, it may be said that in spite of the expansion achieved there was a general deterioration in the field of Primary Education during this period.

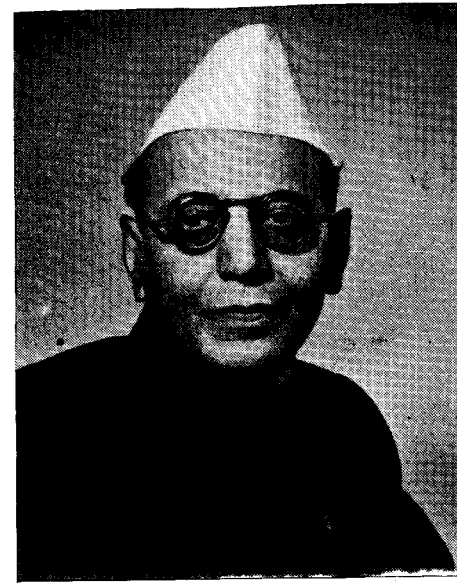
Much better results, however, were obtained in the field of the education of women. The total number of girls under instruction rose from 1,87,265 in 1921-22 to 3,26,571 in 1936-37. In particular, the number of girls reading in secondary schools and colleges increased very largely, mainly owing to the rise in the age of marriage. Notable results were also obtained in the education of backward classes in general and the *Harijans* in particular. Here again a great fillip to the movement for the removal of untouchability was given by Mahatma Gandhi, especially after his epic fast for the *Harijans* in 1932. Different social agencies were now more active than ever to eradicate the evil of untouchability, and Government also began to exert more diligently than in the past for the welfare of the backward communities. A special Department for the Backward Classes was created in 1931 and placed under an officer belonging to the Indian Civil Service; the special schools which were started in the past for *Harijan* pupils were now discouraged and more active steps were taken to secure the admission of *Harijan* pupils to common schools; similar activities were undertaken for the welfare of the aboriginal and hill-tribes also, although their scale was much smaller; and, in spite of the financial stringency prevailing during the period, larger funds were assigned for the education of the backward communities. The problem of juvenile delinquency began to receive some systematic attention for the first time. The Bombay Children's Act was passed in 1924 and the Director of Public Instruction in the first instance, and the Backward Class Officer, Bombay State, thereafter, were placed in charge of all the activities under the Act. The work of Adult Education which existed only in name prior to 1921-22, now received greater attention from Government and was developed to some extent, although the prevailing financial stringency prevented the undertaking of any large scale programme. A special Department was organised for Visual Instruction and placed under

an officer belonging to B. E. S. Class II. And finally, some progress was also achieved in Professional and Technical Education.

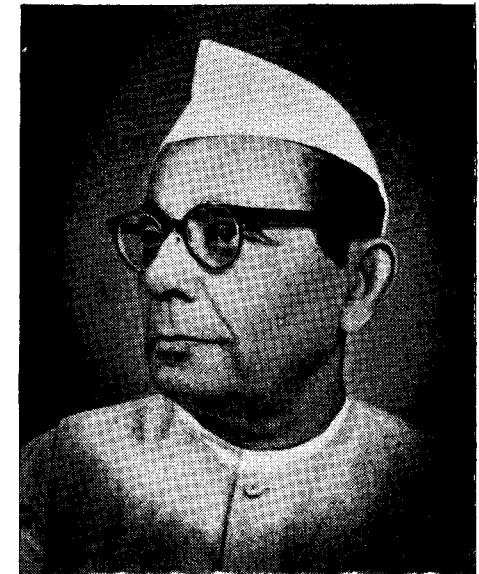
Before closing the review of this period, it is necessary to refer to the movement of national education. As pointed out already, it has begun in the early years of this century and received some impetus from the resolution passed thereon by the Calcutta Congress in 1906. The movement spread largely in Bengal; but, prior to 1921-22, its only prominent example in Bombay State was the Samarth Vidyalaya at Talegaon, near Poona. When, however, the Non-Co-operation Movement was launched in 1921, the programme of national education came to the forefront. Following the lead given by Mahatma Gandhi, a large number of students left schools and colleges and hence the national leaders felt that they should organise independent institutions on national lines, partly for the benefit of such students and partly as a step in evolving a national system of education for the country as a whole. Of the several institutions that were thus started during this period, two deserve special mention—the Gujarat Vidyapeeth of Ahmedabad and the Tilak Maharashtra Vidyapeeth of Poona. Unfortunately, this movement for national education did not spread on account of several reasons which need not be discussed here. But it has made a significant contribution to the national thought in education and it is the principles of this movement, suitably modified, which the Ministers in the popular Government are now trying to work out through the official system itself.

1 (7). *Education under Sovereign Indian Control (1937-55).*—In 1937, the system of Dyarchy came to an end. Provincial Autonomy was introduced under the Government of India Act, 1935, and the Congress came to power for the first time in the history of this State. Since then, it has remained continuously in office to this day, except for a short break between 1940 and 1945 when it resigned as a result of its political struggle and was replaced by a Caretaker Government. But even this break is not significant to the historian of education because the Caretaker Government tried to maintain the *status quo* and to continue the policies of the first Congress Ministry. For all practical purposes, therefore, the eighteen years between 1937 and 1955 may be regarded as a continuous period of development under the sovereign control of the Indian people. Needless to say, it is the most progressive period in the history of modern education in this State.

With the introduction of Provincial Autonomy in 1937 and especially with the attainment of Independence in 1947, all the major difficulties that hampered the work of the Indian Ministers under Dyarchy, disappeared altogether. The portfolio of Finance in the State Ministry was transferred to Indian control as early as in 1937. The Indian Educational Service had lost greatly in strength and importance even in 1937; and it was eliminated altogether within a few years. In 1940, the State had the first Indian Director of Education (Shri S. N. Moos), in 1945, the last European Officer of the I. E. S. retired from service; in 1947, an officer of the Bombay Educational Service became the Director of Education for the first time (Shri D. C. Pavate); and in 1949, the last official of the I. E. S. (Shri K. R. Gunjkar) retired and brought to a close the long



Shri B. G. Kher
(1937-40 and 1946-52)



Shri D. N. Desai
(1952 onwards)



Shrimati Hansa Mehta
Parliamentary Secretary
(1937-40)

Kum. Indumati Chimanlal
Parliamentary Secretary
(1946-52)
&
Deputy Minister
(1952 onwards)



history of this great service. The effects of the world economics depression had practically worn off by 1937 and favourable financial conditions prevailed throughout the period under review. With the assumption of office by the Congress, the gulf which formerly existed between the Indian Ministers under Dyarchy on the one hand and the general public on the other came to an end and Government could now feel certain of an enthusiastic popular support for any large-scale programme of educational reconstruction which it might choose to organise. The Government of India had practically been divorced from education under the system of Dyarchy. But as soon as independence was attained and a national Ministry assumed office in New Delhi, the interest of the Central Government in Education was fully revived and Central grants began to flow freely for educational reconstruction in the States, although the Indian Constitution accepted the supremacy of the States in educational matters and gave no more control to the Government of India than what it already had under the Government of India Act, 1935. It is worthy of note that the shadows of this coming event had begun to fall a good many years in advance. The Central Advisory Board was revived in 1935 and it did some useful work in the co-ordination of State programmes of educational development between 1935 and 1947. It even prepared a plan for the reconstruction of education in the whole of India on a national basis, but the unrepresentative character of the Central Government had greatly hindered the development of its activities. After 1947, however, a regular Ministry of Education was created in the Government of India and educational activities were organised on a scale unknown to the history of the past. It is unnecessary to describe here the activities of the Central Ministry of Education in detail; but it goes without saying that the revival of Central interest in education and the restarting of the Central grants for educational reconstruction have been an immense asset to the State Governments. On the whole, therefore, it would be no exaggeration to say that the political, administrative, and economic conditions of this period were more favourable for educational reconstruction than those of any earlier period in the modern history of India.

Between 1937 and 1955, only two Ministers of Education have held office—Shri B. G. Kher from 1937 to 1940 and again from 1946 to 1952; and Shri D. N. Desai from 1952 to the present day. They were assisted by Shrimati Hansa Mehta who was Parliamentary Secretary for Education from 1937 to 1940 and by Kumari Indumati Chimanlal who was Parliamentary Secretary from 1946 to 1952 and has been Deputy Minister for Education since 1952. Five Directors of Education have held office during this period. Mr. W. Grieve who had become Director in 1934, retired from service in 1940. He was followed by Shri S. N. Moos (1940-45); Shri R. P. Patwardhan (1945-47); Shri D. C. Pavate (1947-54); and by Shri S. S. Bhandarkar, the present Director of Education. Besides, Shri K. G. Saiyidain, who is now Joint Secretary and Educational Adviser to the Ministry of Education, worked as Educational Adviser to the Government of Bombay between 1947 and 1951.

The achievements of Shri B. G. Kher as Minister of Education were outstanding. In fact, it may be said of him that he touched almost every

field of education and touched nothing that he did not reform or largely expand, so that when he laid down his office in 1952, the face of education in the State was entirely changed. In the field of *University Education* the concept of regional universities was adopted and three new universities were established—Poona University (1949); Karnatak University (1950); and Gujarat University (1950). Owing to the merger of the Baroda State, the Maharaja Sayajirao University of Baroda (established in 1949) also became a university of this State and the S. N. D. T. Indian Women's University was statutorily reconstituted in 1951. Consequently, the total number of universities in the State increased from one in 1937 to six in 1952. It was also decided during this period to give regular grants to research institutions. Special rules were accordingly framed for the purpose and a fairly large sum was provided in the annual budgets for assisting these institutions up to 25 per cent. of their approved expenditure. Besides, there was a tremendous expansion of Collegiate Education—the number of Arts Colleges (including Departments of Universities and Research Institutions) rising from 15 in 1936-37 to 67 in 1951-52 and that of Professional Colleges rising from 12 in 1936-37 to 51 in 1951-52. It is true that some of this increase was due to the merger of states like Baroda and Kolhapur; but a very large number of these institutions were newly started during this period. Special mention must be made of the large increase in Professional Colleges which included 8 Colleges of Education (against one in 1936-37); 8 Colleges of Engineering (against one in 1936-37); 7 Colleges of Medicine (against two in 1936-37); 3 Colleges of Agriculture (against one in 1936-37); and 8 Colleges of Commerce (against two in 1936-37). Moreover, Colleges or Institutes for subjects like Music, Fine Arts, Social Work, Physical Education, etc. were started for the first time during this period.*

In the field of *Secondary Education*, the Secondary School Certificate Examination Board Act was passed in 1948. It constituted a statutory body consisting of the representatives of the Universities, headmasters, school teachers, and educationists to conduct the School Leaving Examination at the end of the secondary course. The reform has been eminently successful and the Board has been able to introduce a large variety of subjects in its curriculum, to substantially increase the number of centres for holding the Examination, and to offer a number of other facilities to schools and students. Secondly, the emphasis on English was progressively and deliberately reduced during this period. On the one hand, the use of the mother-tongue as the medium of education was encouraged still further, so that *all* subjects were now taught through that medium in most secondary schools of the State; and on the other, the teaching of English even as a subject was discontinued in the three lower standards of the secondary schools (i. e. in Standards V to VII).†

*During this period, the lead in providing facilities for Professional Education was taken by the Universities and private agencies and it is mainly to them that this expansion is due. (Out of the 51 colleges, only 20 were conducted by Government). In Medical and Agricultural Education, however, Government still retained its lead.

† The primary and secondary standards were now consecutively numbered from V to XI.

Moreover, attempts were made to curtail the tendency of parents (whose mother-tongue was not English) to send their children to English-teaching schools at an early age. These reforms met with a good deal of opposition, especially in urban areas. But the storm of the controversies is now dying out and the reform is generally being accepted as ultimately beneficial. A part of the time thus made available was devoted partly to the compulsory teaching of Hindi, the national language and partly to the teaching of selected crafts. Thirdly, it was decided to close down a number of Government high schools, because the secondary schools of the academic type were being conducted adequately and efficiently by private enterprise. Some of these were converted into training institutions for primary teachers and some others were converted into vocational high schools because it is generally beyond the resources of private bodies to conduct these institutions. A special examination, known as the S. L. C. Examination, was conducted for the students of the vocational schools until 1949 when it was merged with the new school leaving examination conducted by the Secondary School Certificate Examination Board. Fourthly, the secondary schools whose finances were hit very hard by the rise in the cost of living on account of the Second World War were aided on a more liberal and systematic basis. The fees in the secondary schools were raised to some extent; and Government revised its Grant-in-Aid Code and introduced a new system under which every recognised secondary school was assured of a grant at a fixed percentage of its total approved expenditure during the preceding year. Fifthly, Government now tried, for the first time in the history of Secondary Education in the State, to improve the conditions of service of secondary teachers working in private schools. For this purpose, a Provident Fund Scheme was sanctioned under which every permanent teacher working in a recognised secondary school was compelled to subscribe at the rate of one anna for every rupee of his salary and an equal amount was contributed to his account by the management of the school and Government on a fifty-fifty basis. Similarly, every recognised school was required to frame definite rules prescribing the conditions of service for its employees and specific orders regarding the procedure to be adopted in terminating the services of teachers were issued. These reforms have improved the situation considerably, although the present position could not be described as altogether satisfactory. The best reform in this field, however, was the adoption of a common scale of pay for all teachers in secondary schools—whether Government or private.

In the field of *Primary Education*, the achievements of this period were remarkable. (1) In fact, the entire legislation on the subject was overhauled. In 1938, the Bombay Primary Education Act, 1923, was amended and the function of inspection, which had been transferred to the School Boards in 1923, was again taken over by Government. The inspecting staff employed by the local authorities was transferred to Government service and suitably strengthened so that the Department was now provided with adequate machinery to supervise the administrative of Primary Education by local bodies. Under the same Act, the Administration Officers of the School Boards were taken over in Government service and were empowered

ed to control the services of primary teachers. This step helped in minimising the unhealthy practices that often were followed in the past in the appointments and transfers of primary teachers. Besides, the Act also created a State Board of Primary Education to advise Government on all matters connected with Primary Education. In 1947, a comprehensive Primary Education Act was passed to replace all the earlier legislation on the subject and an equally comprehensive set of rules under the Act was passed in 1949. This legislation incorporated all the three features of the Act of 1938 which have been described above and introduced some further changes. For example, it curtailed the authority of the District School Boards very considerably in view of the fact that about 96 per cent. of their expenditure was being met from Government funds. It constituted Staff Selection Committees (consisting of the Chairman of the School Board, the Educational Inspector and the Administrative Officer) for recruiting the staff of the School Boards and Appellate Tribunals (consisting of the Chairman of the School Board and the Educational Inspector) for hearing appeals against the orders of disciplinary action passed by the Administrative Officers. It also refixed the basis of grant-in-aid to local bodies. For voluntary expansion, the Authorised Municipalities were now aided on a graduated scale in proportion to their resources; and in the case of non-Authorised Municipalities and District School Boards, their contribution was fixed at a definite percentage of their income and Government agreed to bear all the additional funds required. It is not necessary to give further details of this Act. What has been stated above is enough to show how different it is from the Primary Education Act of 1923.* (2) Compulsory Primary Education made a tremendous progress during this period. In the urban areas, only a few Municipalities introduced compulsion and the progress cannot be considered as satisfactory. But in the rural areas, there was a revolutionary change. In the 19 districts of the Bombay State (the pre-merger districts) compulsory education was introduced for boys and girls in the age-group of 7-11 in all places with a population of 1,000 and over, except in the Broach District, where places with a population of 500 and over were also brought under compulsion. (3) Great changes were also made in the system of training primary teachers. The old system under which a teacher was trained discontinuously for three years was abandoned; a new course of two years' continuous training was adopted; the number of Government training institutions was greatly raised and liberal encouragement was given to private bodies to conduct training institutions; an attempt was made to develop training institutions in rural areas; and teachers under training were given duty pay. All these reforms increased the percentage of trained teachers very substantially, in spite of the rapid expansion that was taking place. (4) A drive to eliminate school-less villages was undertaken and the scheme of voluntary schools was introduced in 1938-39. Under this scheme, liberal grants were given to private bodies conducting schools in school-less villages. It was extremely successful and, within a few years, several hundreds of school-less villages were provided with

* Besides these two Acts, the City of Bombay P. E. (Amendment) Act, 1950 was passed and certain radical changes were introduced in the administration of Primary Education in the City of Bombay.

schools at a comparatively small cost to Government. (5) Considerable efforts were made to introduce the scheme of Basic Education which Mahatma Gandhi had placed before the country. In 1951-52, there were three graduates' basic training colleges (which taught through the medium of Gujarati, Marathi, and Kannada respectively) for the training of teachers and inspecting officers in Basic Education; 17 training institutions for primary teachers were converted to the basic pattern; and as many as 2,801 primary schools in which crafts were introduced with a view to their gradual conversion into basic schools. (6) The pay scales of primary teachers were revised more than once during this period and the old tradition that the primary teacher in Bombay is one of the best paid primary teachers in the whole of India was fully maintained. (7) A regular scheme for constructing buildings for primary schools was undertaken. A Primary School Building Committee was constituted for each district and regular and liberal grants were sanctioned for the purpose. Besides, a scheme for constructing school buildings with the help of the loans made to the School Boards from the provident fund accumulations of all members of the staff maintained by the District School Boards was also undertaken. (8) The curriculum of primary schools was revised and made more liberal. Similarly, a simpler curriculum for the use of the single-teacher schools was also prepared. As a result of this revision, a common Primary School Certificate Examination for boys and girls was introduced. Moreover the Infant Class was abolished and the total duration of the primary course was reduced to seven years only. (9) The old system of holding examinations in primary schools through the inspecting officers was abandoned and these were entrusted to the primary teachers themselves. (10) Government introduced its own sets of language readers in the primary schools (Standards I-IV) and, with a view to improving the quality of text-books, assumed the authority to prescribe them in primary schools.

In the field of *Social Education*, an intensive and extensive drive for the liquidation of illiteracy was launched. A State Board of Adult Education was first created and later on replaced by three regional committees for the Gujarati, Marathi and Kannada linguistic areas. Special Social Education Committees were also set up in important cities. Literacy and post-literacy classes were organised on a very large scale. The training of adult education workers was organised and some literature for the neo-literates was produced. An ambitious scheme for organising village reading-rooms and libraries was also sanctioned. Without going into details, which will be narrated in a later chapter, it may be stated here that the modern movement of Social Education really begins in 1937 in this State.

Pioneer work of equal importance was also organised in the field of *Physical Education*. A training institute was started at Kandivali for training teachers in Physical Education; a special Inspectorate for Physical Education was organised and the latter was made compulsory in all secondary and primary schools; and special grants for the development of Physical Education in schools as well as among the general public were sanctioned. In short, a great fillip was given to the movement of Physical

Education and the teachers and students were made conscious of the importance of the subject. Similar pioneer work was also organised in *Visual Education* and a special post in B. E. S. Class I was created for the State Inspector for Visual Education; special grants for the purchase of modern audio-visual aids by schools were sanctioned; and the activities of the section were greatly expanded. In the *field of libraries*, a special Inspectorate was created under the Curator of Libraries; a Central Copyright Library was established in Bombay; three Regional Copyright Libraries were established at Ahmedabad, Poona and Dharwar; the Press and Registration of Books Act of 1867 was suitably amended to meet the requirements of these Copyright Libraries; grants-in-aid were sanctioned to district and taluka libraries which were brought under a regular system of inspection; and steps were taken to conserve, as far as possible, the well developed library movement of the old Baroda State. In so far as the *Education of the Backward Classes* is concerned, very large grants were sanctioned and a large number of concessions were allowed to backward class pupils at all stages of instruction. In particular, a very large number of hostels for backward classes were organised and large recurring and non-recurring grants were sanctioned for their maintenance. In the *Education of Women* the progress was even greater than in the earlier period. The number of girls under instruction increased from 3,26,571 in 1936-37 to 13,63,171 in 1951-52. The increase had taken place at all levels; but the increase at the secondary and collegiate level was both large and gratifying. Moreover, the number of women officers on the inspecting side was also considerably increased during this period.

The changes introduced in the regime of Shri Kher are many and far-reaching and it would hardly be possible to describe all of them in a small sketch of this type. But even this brief review of his major achievements will show that Shri Kher's tenure of office was a very eventful and progressive era in the history of education in this State. The following table which compares the educational conditions in 1936-37 with those in 1951-52 will bear out this statement.

TABLE No. 1 (9)
General Educational Progress (1937 to 1952)

	1936-37		1951-52	
	No. of Institutions.	No. of Pupils.	No. of Institutions.	No. of Pupils.
1. Arts Colleges	15	10,010	67	43,466
2. Professional Colleges	12	3,347	51	16,678
3. Secondary Schools	639	1,27,087	1,349	4,36,132
4. Primary Schools	12,901	11,40,299	28,335	34,78,221
5. Special Schools	372	18,826	12,447	3,17,541
Total	13,939	12,99,569	42,249	42,92,038
Unrecognised Institutions	670	36,320	389	16,425
Grand Total	14,609	13,35,889	42,638	43,08,463

These statistics are not strictly comparable because large territorial changes took place during this period. Sind was separated in 1936-37 and a large number of the Indian States merged in 1949. Consequently the area of the State increased from 77,221 sq. miles in 1936-37 to 1,11,434 sq. miles in 1951-52. Similarly, the population changed from 179 lakhs in 1931 to 359 lakhs in 1951. Allowance for these territorial changes will have to be made in making these statistics comparable. But, even so, the great advance achieved during these 15 years can be imagined from the fact that the percentage of pupils to population rose from 7.5 in 1936-37 to 12.0 in 1951-52.

The following table will show the increase of expenditure between 1936-37 and 1951-52:—

TABLE No. 1 (10)
Educational Expenditure in 1951-52

Source.	Expenditure in 1936-37.	Expenditure in 1951-52
	Rs.	Rs.
Central Revenues	...	40,15,911 (1.8)
Provincial Revenues	1,55,51,740 (41.4)	11,97,79,985 (52.9)
Board Funds	70,28,396 (18.7)	2,82,54,794 (12.5)
Fees	95,93,470 (25.5)	5,19,55,285 (22.9)
Other Sources	54,28,233 (14.4)	2,22,14,233 (9.9)
Total	3,76,01,839 (100.0)	22,62,20,208 (100.0)

An important development of this period was the merger of a large number of Indian States with Bombay. All the Indian States which were contiguous to, or within the area of, the Bombay State (except the two major States of Baroda and Kolhapur) were merged in 1948 and Baroda and Kolhapur were merged in 1949. This administrative revolution created several problems for the Department. In the first place, the area under the control of the Department increased from 76,443 sq. miles in 1946-47 to 1,13,343 sq. miles in 1949-50 and the population dealt with increased from 208.5 lakhs (1941 Census) to 359.6 lakhs (1951 Census). The staff of the Department also increased very considerably because suitable employees of the Education Departments of the merged States had to be taken over in the first instance. These employees showed immense variations in qualifications, scales of pay, training, etc. and the problem of absorbing them in the Bombay Education Department on the usual scales of pay and fixing their seniority *vis-a-vis* the employees of the Department proper became, therefore, extremely complicated and difficult. But the issue has been almost fully solved by now. Those employees of the old Indian States who so desired were allowed to retire on very favourable and liberal terms and others were absorbed in the Departmental service on scales of pay which were not inferior to

their own and their seniority in service was fixed on the basis of their revised salaries. With the exception of teachers working in ex-State secondary schools whose future is yet to be decided, the problem of absorbing the employees of the old Indian States may now be said to have been fully and satisfactorily solved. Similarly, it was found that the old Indian States conducted a large number of educational institutions under their direct auspices—a policy which was different from that of the Bombay Education Department. They also gave several concessions in fees, etc. which were at variance from the policies adopted in the Bombay State. The Department, therefore, was called upon to remove all such anomalies and to introduce a common educational policy throughout the area of the State. This difficult problem is still being worked out. Those educational institutions conducted by the old Indian States which were in keeping with the policy of the Department have been continued under direct departmental control on a permanent basis. For example, the Arts and Science College, as well as the Secondary Training College at Kolhapur have been continued as permanent Government institutions. Similarly the Arts and Science College at Visnagar is at present being continued as a Government college and in all likelihood will be run as a permanent Government institution. Some secondary schools have also been continued in the same fashion. But several secondary schools have been transferred to private managements, some have been amalgamated with other institutions and a few which did not serve any useful purpose in the new set-up have been discontinued. In spite of these decisions, several secondary schools are still being conducted by the Department on a provisional basis and their future is under consideration. It is hoped, however, that the problem would be satisfactorily solved within the next 2 or 3 years. It should also be pointed out that most of the Indian States which were merged with Bombay were backward in education and Government was, therefore, required to incur very heavy recurring and non-recurring expenditure in bringing them on a par with the other areas of the State. The problem, however, has been resolutely faced since 1951 and it may be said that the differences between the merged areas of the State and others are now almost completely eliminated in so far as the provision of educational facilities is concerned.

Shri D. N. Desai succeeded Shri B. G. Kher in 1952. Even in the short period of three years during which he has been in office, a number of radical reforms have been introduced and remarkable progress achieved in several directions.

The first important aspect of the policy now laid down was consolidation. Since 1947 so much of expansion had been achieved in so many directions that it had now become essential to take stock of the situation and to emphasize consolidation rather than expansion or innovation. Consequently, a reduction was made in the number of schemes that were simultaneously in progress in all fields of education and some less urgent plans were either curtailed or held in abeyance. With some exceptions, the large number of Advisory Boards which had been set up earlier were abolished as soon as their terms of office came to an end. On some fronts e. g., craft schools, further expansion was provisionally held up in order

to obtain better qualitative results. And above all, the Education Department was radically reorganised. Hitherto, the basic unit of educational administration was a division or a group of districts. As stated already, the number of divisions in the State had been increased to five in 1920-21. The separation of Sind in 1936-37 reduced this number to four again. In 1947-48, a fifth division was again created, with headquarters at Nasik, with a view to breaking up the unwieldy Central Division into two parts, and owing to the merger of States and consequent increase in area, the number of divisions was increased to six (with the creation of a new division at Baroda in 1950). But in spite of all these changes, the basic unit was still the division. It has to be remembered that a division was adopted as the basic unit in educational administration at a time when the progress of education was very limited and that it had continued to be so even though the number of educational institutions had increased more than threefold. What the situation needed, therefore, was the adoption of a smaller basic unit of administration. Hence, in 1953-54, the Department was completely reorganised by making an educational division equivalent to a district.* This radical reform has led to a definite increase in Departmental efficiency and has created a structure that will bear, not only the great expansion achieved since 1947, but even the further expansion which is visualized during the Second Plan period.

The second important aspect of the new policy was to concentrate on the development of Primary Education. Government now decided that the most important objective of its educational policy would be to provide Compulsory Primary Education of not less than four years' duration in every part of the State. For this purpose, a great drive was launched to open single-teacher, group, or peripatetic schools in all districts and to provide educational facilities for almost every village. A large number of additional teachers was sanctioned to meet the increased enrolment in primary schools. Compulsory education in all places with a population of 1,000 and over (which had been in force in 19 districts only in 1951-52) was extended to *all* the districts; and special legislation was enacted to make the enforcement of compulsory education more effective. In short, it may be said that the emphasis now laid on the expansion of Primary Education was so great that it had no precedent in the earlier history of the State; and consequently, the results obtained in this field were outstanding.

Subject to these priorities accorded to the general consolidation and the expansion of Primary Education, a fairly comprehensive programme of educational reconstruction has been taken in hand and is being vigorously implemented. At the university level, large building grants are being provided to the newly established universities; Professional and Vocational Education is being developed; and a scheme of merit and loan scholarships has been adopted to help deserving but poor students to receive higher education. At the secondary stage, a new and simplified curriculum which is better correlated with the practical needs of life has been introduced; a scheme of establishing multi-purpose high schools

* For details vide Chapter II, para. 6.

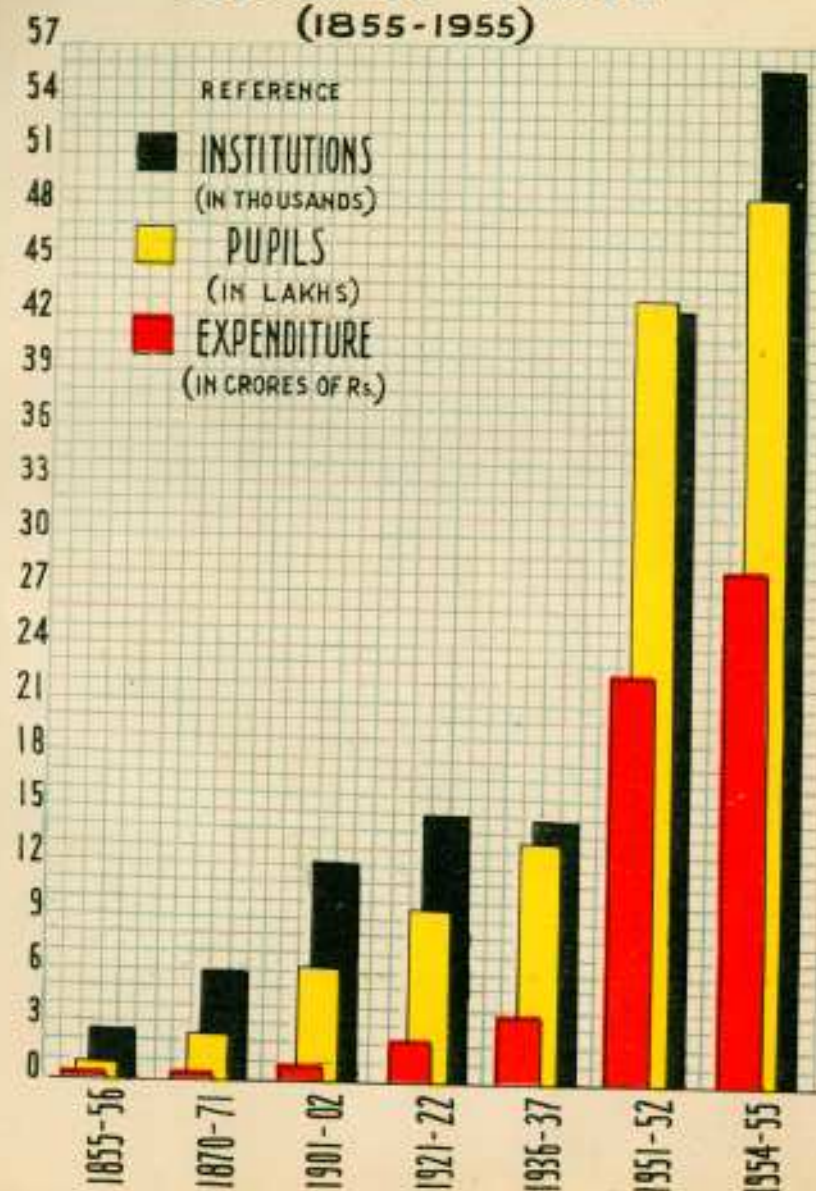
in every district has been undertaken; a clear-cut language policy has been laid down with a view to reducing the burden of language studies to a minimum; and a general drive to improve the standard of secondary education through such means as seminars of headmasters, more effective guidance by inspecting officers, and the introduction of penal cuts in grant-in-aid for low standards of work has been organised. At the primary level, the number of training colleges has been increased and the cost of training has been reduced by the substitution of stipends for duty-pay (which used to be given to teachers under training in the past). As in the secondary stage, the syllabus of primary schools also has been thoroughly over-hauled and made simpler and more practical. An intensive effort has been made to improve the quality of text-books prescribed and the scheme of constructing school buildings with the help of loans granted from the provident funds of teachers, etc., has been implemented on a large scale. The number of Assistant Deputy Educational Inspectors has been increased and the Educational Inspectors have been assigned specific responsibilities in the supervision of Primary Education. On the whole, therefore, it may be said that an intensive effort to improve the quality of instruction is being made at the primary stage as well.

The following tables will show the expansion achieved between 1951-52 and 1954-55:—

TABLE No. 1 (11)
General Educational Progress
(1951-52 to 1954-55)

	1951-52		1953-54		1954-55	
	No. of Institutions.	No. of Pupils.	No. of Institutions.	No. of Pupils.	No. of Institutions.	No. of Pupils.
1. Arts Colleges (including the Departments of Universities and Research Institutions).	67	28,466	79	50,779	79	54,944
2. Professional Colleges ...	51	16,672	62	33,858	65	26,977
3. Secondary Schools ...	1,249	4,36,132	1,456	4,44,197	1,521	4,75,903
4. Primary Schools ...	28,335	84,78,221	31,130	35,58,750	33,413	88,30,466
5. Special Schools ...	12,447	3,17,541	20,908	4,64,674	20,752	4,59,671
Total Recognised ...	42,049	92,92,088	63,605	15,16,258	75,629	18,75,460
Unrecognised Institutions...	889	16,425	266	15,491	217	11,854
Grand Total ...	42,938	93,08,513	63,871	15,31,749	75,846	18,87,314

PROGRESS OF EDUCATION IN BOMBAY STATE (1855-1955)



in every district has been undertaken; a clear-cut language policy has been laid down with a view to reducing the burden of language studies to a minimum; and a general drive to improve the standard of secondary education through such means as seminars of headmasters, more effective guidance by inspecting officers, and the introduction of penal cuts in grant-in-aid for low standards of work has been organised. At the primary level, the number of training colleges has been increased and the cost of training has been reduced by the substitution of stipends for duty-pay (which used to be given to teachers under training in the past). As in the secondary stage, the syllabus of primary schools also has been thoroughly over-hauled and made simpler and more practical. An intensive effort has been made to improve the quality of text-books prescribed and the scheme of constructing school buildings with the help of loans granted from the provident funds of teachers, etc., has been implemented on a large scale. The number of Assistant Deputy Educational Inspectors has been increased and the Educational Inspectors have been assigned specific responsibilities in the supervision of Primary Education. On the whole, therefore, it may be said that an intensive effort to improve the quality of instruction is being made at the primary stage as well.

The following tables will show the expansion achieved between 1951-52 and 1954-55:—

TABLE NO. 1 (11)
General Educational Progress
(1951-52 to 1954-55)

	1951-52.		1953-54.		1954-55.	
	No. of Institutions.	No. of Pupils.	No. of Institutions.	No. of Pupils.	No. of Institutions.	No. of Pupils.
1. Arts Colleges (including the Departments of Universities and Research Institutions).	67	49,466	79	50,779	78	54,844
2. Professional Colleges ...	51	16,678	62	22,858	65	25,277
3. Secondary Schools ...	1,349	4,36,132	1,456	4,44,197	1,521	4,75,202
4. Primary Schools ...	28,335	34,78,221	31,130	35,53,750	33,213	38,30,466
5. Special Schools ...	12,447	3,17,541	20,808	4,64,674	20,752	4,89,671
Total Recognised ...	42,249	42,92,038	53,535	45,36,258	55,629	48,75,460
Unrecognised Institutions...	389	16,425	266	13,491	247	11,854
Grand Total ...	42,638	43,08,463	53,801	45,49,749	55,876	48,87,314

PROGRESS OF EDUCATION IN BOMBAY STATE (1855-1955)

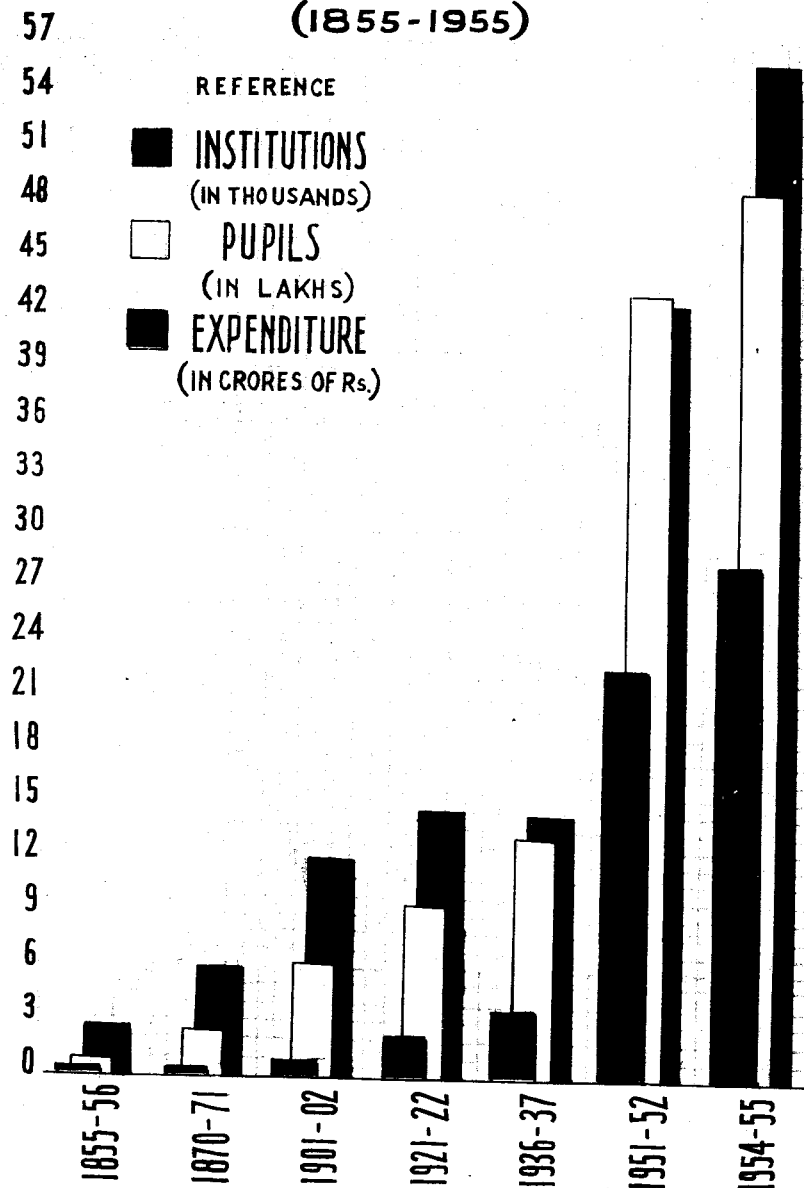


TABLE NO. 1 (12)
Growth of Educational Expenditure
 (1951-52 to 1954-55)

Source.	1951-52.	1953-54.	1954-55
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
Central Government Funds ...	40,15,911 (1.8)	59,46,472 (2.3)	75,54,474 (2.7)
State Government Funds ...	11,97,79,985 (52.9)	13,52,66,503 (53.0)	14,93,45,133 (53.3)
Board Funds ...	2,82,54,794 (12.5)	2,67,17,291 (10.5)	3,04,56,716 (10.9)
Fees ...	5,19,55,285 (22.9)	5,90,89,534 (23.3)	6,60,10,139 (23.5)
Other Sources (endowments, subscriptions, etc.).	2,22,14,233 (9.9)	2,79,62,440 (10.9)	2,68,50,349 (9.6)
Total ...	22,62,20,208 (100.0)	25,49,82,245 (100.0)	28,02,16,811 (100.0)

Two of the most notable events of the regime of Shri D. N. Desai are the implementation of the First Five Year Plan (which was spread over the quinquennium from 1951-52 to 1955-56) and the preparation of the Second Five Year Plan (1956-57 to 1961-62). The First Five Year Plan of the Bombay State provided for a total expenditure of Rs. 146.81 crores. Out of this, Education was given Rs. 46.32 crores or 31.7 per cent. This included Rs. 50.06 lakhs for training of teachers; Rs. 42.02 lakhs for strengthening the Inspecting Staff; Rs. 58.06 lakhs for opening schools in school-less villages; Rs. 3289.90 lakhs for Compulsory Primary Education and expansion of Primary Education on a voluntary basis; Rs. 51.06 lakhs for the construction of primary school buildings; Rs. 150.79 lakhs for craft training in primary schools; Rs. 106.43 lakhs for improvement of Secondary Education;* Rs. 237.30 lakhs for universities and research institutions; Rs. 111.20 lakhs for Social Education; Rs. 108.60 lakhs for Physical Education; Rs. 16 lakhs for Visual Education; Rs. 15.03 lakhs for Libraries; and Rs. 195 lakhs for Technical and Vocational Education. A review of the implementation of the Plan taken in 1954-55 showed that it would be fully implemented in most respects and that the targets fixed would even be exceeded in some cases.

The Second Five Year Plan of Educational Development has been drawn up on a smaller scale than the First, mainly because Irrigation and Agricultural Development has now been more emphasised. As now finalised the Second Five Year Plan of Educational Development includes 67 schemes estimated to cost Rs. 10.18 crores (inclusive of assistance from the Central Government for some of the schemes but exclusive of the funds provided from the Community Development Project, National Extension Service and Local Development Works which amount to Rs. 4.25 crores, the net cost to the State Government being Rs. 8.06 crores. Among the more important of these schemes are (1) the introduction of Compulsory

*Since revised to Rs. 470.62 lakhs.

Primary Education for the age range 7-11 in all places with a population of 500 to 999 (Rs. 2.7 crores); (2) construction of about 10,000 additional school rooms for primary schools (Rs. 2.5 crores); (3) other schemes for the development of Primary Education such as training of primary teachers, conversion of ordinary schools into basic schools, etc. (Rs. 1.49 crores); (4) increased facilities to pupils of secondary schools from rural areas by the provision of additional free-studentships, scholarships, loan scholarships and increased hostel accommodation (Rs. 53.4 lakhs); (5) establishment of 53 additional multi-purpose schools (Rs. 34.62 lakhs); (6) loans for construction of buildings for secondary schools (Rs. 80 lakhs); (7) other schemes for the improvement of Secondary Education, such as Auxiliary Cadet Corps, Youth Camps, Refresher Courses and Seminars for Head Masters and teachers, increased facilities for training of teachers, etc. (Rs. 31.3 lakhs); additional grants to universities for construction of buildings and purchase of equipment as well as for increased recurring expenditure (Rs. 78.5 lakhs); (9) improvement of Government Colleges (Rs. 32 lakhs); (10) expansion of Social Education (Rs. 1.73 crores, the entire expenditure being provided out of Community Development Projects Funds); (11) improvement of the educational facilities for handicapped children and expansion of vocational guidance work (Rs. 7 lakhs); and (12) propagation of Hindi (Rs. 2.5 lakhs). Besides, the Plan includes 18 schemes for the development of Technical Education estimated to cost Rs. 2.46 crores; 5 schemes for Art Education (Rs. 5.76 lakhs); 5 schemes in respect of Juvenile Delinquency (Rs. 14.4 lakhs); and miscellaneous schemes for the revision of District Gazetteers and the creation of a Department of Archaeology (Rs. 4.24 lakhs).

1 (8). *Conclusion*.—In 1954-55 the system of modern education was about 134 years old and the Education Department completed the first hundred years of its existence. Looking back on the progress achieved during this period, it is easy to notice the tremendous change that has been steadily brought about. From the quantitative point of view; it may be said that the total number of educational institutions in the State increased from 2,875 in 1855-56 to 55,876 in 1954-55; the number of pupils from 1,06,040 in 1855-56 to 48,87,314 in 1954-55; the State grant for Education from about Rs. 2 lakhs in 1855-56 to Rs. 1,493.4 lakhs in 1954-55; and the total educational expenditure from about Rs. 7 lakhs in 1855-56 to Rs. 2,802.1 lakhs in 1954-55. Qualitatively, the traditional system of higher education which was narrow in concept and dominated exclusively by religious ideas has now been replaced by the modern system of Secondary and University Education; the limited scope of the indigenous elementary schools has been enlarged to include the concept of Universal, Compulsory, and Free Primary Education; and revolutionary changes have been made in the status and Education of Women and the Backward Classes. It is true that the pace of this progress has been slow; but the qualitative and quantitative achievements of the Popular Ministries since 1936-37 have been so outstanding that they leave every room for the hope that the educational progress in future would be far more rapid than in the past and that the State would soon be in a position to provide modern educational facilities befitting a "Sovereign Democratic Republic" to all the children within its territories.

2 (1). *Functions of the Education Department*.—The Department of Education, as stated in the last Chapter, was founded in 1855. As originally contemplated, its functions were (1) to advise the State Government generally on educational matters; (2) to administer the educational institutions established or maintained by the State; (3) to establish and conduct such new educational institutions as would be deemed to be necessary; (4) to supervise and control the educational institutions conducted by other agencies—official, semi-official, or non-official—in accordance with the laws and orders of Government issued from time to time; (5) to administer the funds provided by Government for educational purposes in its annual budgets; and (6) generally to assist Government in developing a proper system of education for the State as a whole. These objectives have remained unchanged in form during the last hundred years. But the *spirit* has undergone a total change in keeping with the changes brought about in the character of the State Government itself. In 1854-55, an alien Government which could neither have conceived nor created a national system of education was in authority and all the key-posts were held by European Officers. Hence the objectives and policies of the Department were necessarily pitched to goals which have now become obsolete. With the attainment of Independence in 1947 a Democratic Welfare State fully representative of the people themselves has come into power and the Department is now exclusively staffed by Indians themselves. The responsibilities of the Department have tremendously increased in scope and significance during the last eight years. It is now called upon to examine critically all its inheritance from the past, to remedy deficiencies that are injurious to national interest and to assist Government in creating a new system of education suited to the requirements of a free India.

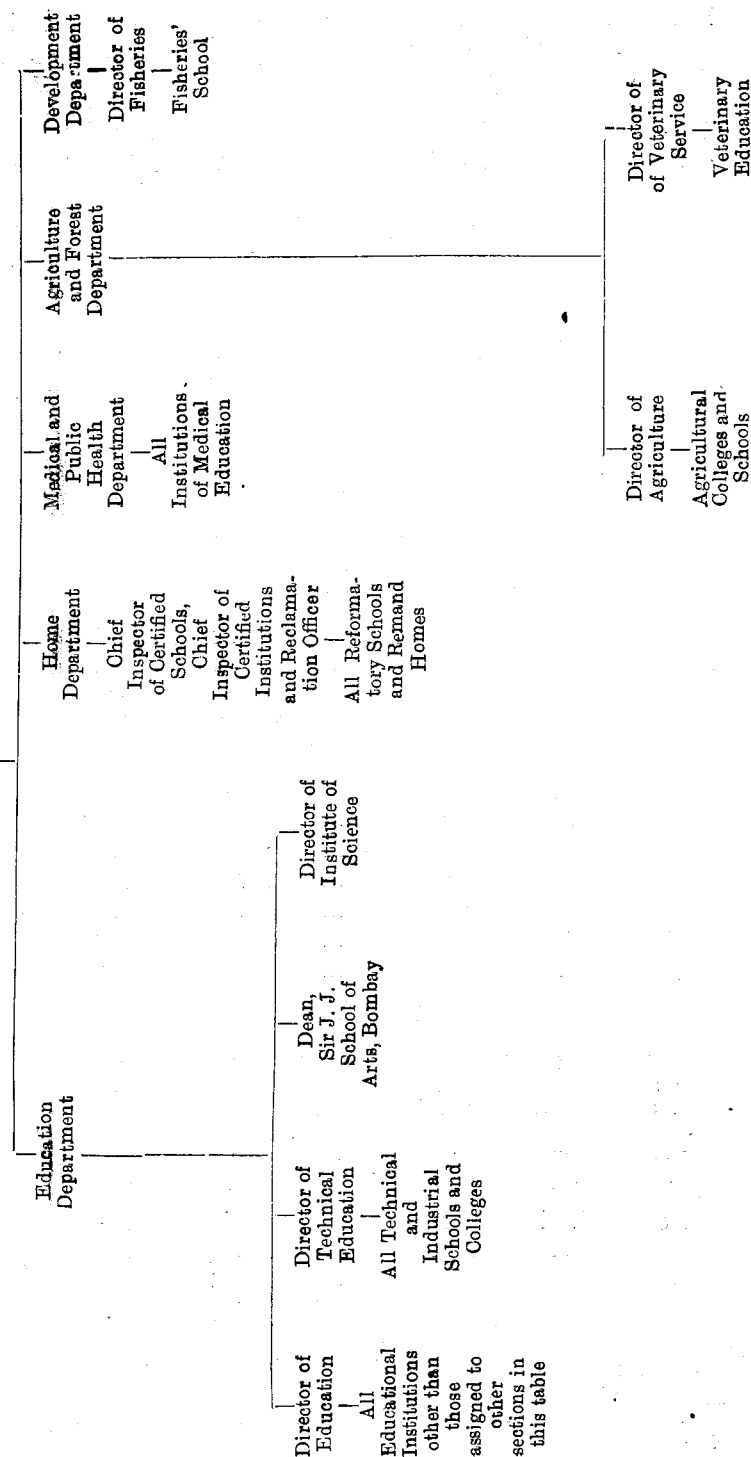
Another development of the last hundred years is the transfer of certain educational activities to other Departments of Government. In 1855-56 the Education Department was exclusively in charge of all the educational institutions in the State and they were all controlled by the Director of Education. This position continued practically unchanged till the end of the nineteenth century when two sets of changes began to appear. On the one hand, other specialised Departments were evolved and began to take over the educational activities connected with them, and, on the other, additional heads for special types of educational institutions were appointed within the Education Department itself. For instance, following the creation of the Department of Agriculture, the agricultural classes which were formerly conducted as a part of the College of Engineering (then called the College of Science, Poona) were transferred to the Department of Agriculture in 1907-08, and developed into a separate College of Agriculture. The control of the Grant Medical College, Bombay, used to be with the Education Department in the early years. But it was finally placed under the sole control of the Surgeon General with the Government of Bombay in 1910-11. Besides, the practice was also adopted

to place all institutions of Medical Education under the Medical Department instead of under the Education Department. Similarly, the Veterinary College, Bombay, was taken away from the Department of Education in 1910-11 and was first placed under the Director of Agriculture and later on, under the Director of Veterinary Services. In 1928-29, the Sir J. J. School of Arts, Bombay, was made into a separate section and taken away from the control of the Director of Education, although it continued to remain under the control of the Education Department of the Secretariat. Prior to 1934-35, the Director of Education used to be appointed as the Chief Inspector of Certified Schools. But in that year this authority was transferred to the Director of Backward Class Welfare. In 1947, a special officer designated as Chief Inspector of Certified Schools and Chief Inspector of Certified Institutions was appointed under the Home Department and was placed in charge of all work connected with Juvenile Delinquency. In 1950, however, all matters relating to the administration of the Bombay Childrens' Act, 1948, were transferred to the Education Department of the Secretariat, although the post of the Chief Inspector of Certified Schools still continues to be with the Home Department. In 1931-32, the administrative control of all institutions of Technical and Industrial Education (except the College of Engineering, Poona) was transferred to the Director of Industries. In 1947-48, a still further step was taken by the creation of a Department of Technical Education, placed in charge of a special officer designated as the Joint Director (now Director) of Technical Education, and by transferring the control of all technical and industrial schools and colleges (including the College of Engineering, Poona, and all Government Technical High Schools in the State) to this new Department. The Director of Technical Education was, however, made subordinate to the Education Department of the Secretariat so that all institutions under his control (with a few solitary exceptions) were re-transferred from the Industries to the Education Department. In 1953 the Institute of Science was taken away from the control of the Director of Education and placed in charge of a Director under the direct control of the Education Department of the Secretariat. The present system of control of educational institutions in the State is, therefore, best explained in a tabular form (See page 49).

2 (2). *The Educational Institutions conducted by the Department.*—While dealing with the functions of the Department, another important problem needs a close examination, viz., the scope of the direct enterprise of the State vis-a-vis the private enterprise in different fields of education.

In 1854-55 when the Education Department was created, missionary enterprise had made a good start and Indian private enterprise had just entered the field. The question for decision, therefore, was this: Should the educational needs of the country be provided exclusively or mainly by the direct enterprise of the State or should private enterprise be encouraged to develop into the principal agency for the maintenance of educational institutions? The Despatch of 1854 pointed out the impossibility of developing the direct enterprise of the State to any large extent and accepted private educational enterprise as the principal agency for

Bombay Government



N. B.—Several other Departments of the State such as Labour Department, Co-operative Department, Industries Department, Rehabilitation Department conduct educational activities of their own; but statistics about these are not always included in the Departmental Reports.

TABLE NO. 2 (3)

Proportion of Educational Institutions conducted by Government to total number of educational Institutions in the State as a whole (1855-1955)

Year.	Number of Educational Institutions conducted by Government.	Total number of Educational Institutions in the State.	Percentage of col. 2 to col. 3.
1	2	3	4
1855-56	300	2,875	1.04
1870-71	2,728	6,134	44.5
1881-82	4,005	9,664	41.4
1891-92	87	12,272	0.70
1901-02	64	12,251	0.52
1911-12	82	16,460	0.49
1921-22	133	14,900	0.89
1931-32	121	17,159	0.70
1936-37	108	14,609	0.70
1946-47	139	23,991	0.57
1953-54	301	53,802	0.56
1954-55	298	55,877	0.53

N.B.—(1) The statistics of indigenous schools and unrecognised institutions, wherever available, have been included in the figures given under column 3.

(2) The fall in 1936-37 is due to separation of Sind.

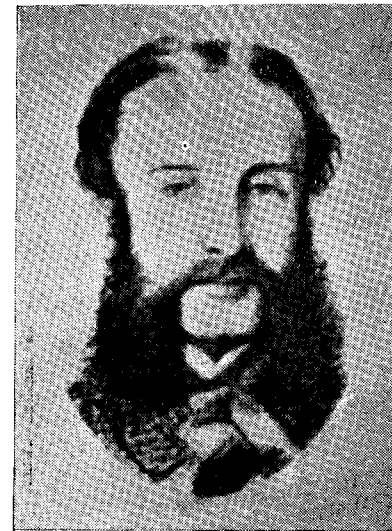
(3) The increase in 1953-54 is mainly due to the merger of Indian States which used to conduct several educational institutions. These had to be taken over by the Department in the first instance.

2 (3). *The Directors of Education.*—The Head of the Education Department of the Bombay State is designated as "Director of Education." He is an officer of the Administration Branch.

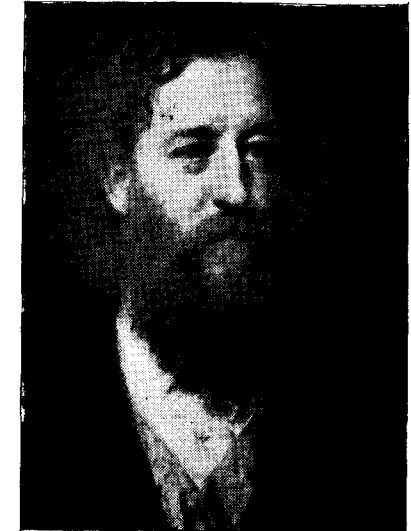
Most of the Directors of Education who held office during the last hundred years belonged to one or other of the Departmental services and were promoted to the post in consideration of their seniority and meritorious service. The Despatch of 1854 had suggested that the Director of Education may be preferably selected from the Civil Service, "as such appointments in the first instance would tend to raise the estimation in which these officers will be held, and to show the importance we attach to the subject of education, and also, as amongst them you will probably find the persons best qualified for the performance of the duty."* But the Court of Directors made it clear that this suggestion of theirs was not binding on the State Governments and observed that "neither these offices, nor any others connected with education, shall be considered as necessarily to be filled by members of that service, to the exclusion of others, Europeans or Natives, who may be better fitted for them."† The first Director was selected from the Civil Service; but very soon it was decided that the post of the Director of Education would ordinarily be filled by promotion from amongst the members of the Educational Services. In actual practice, the senior-most Educational Inspector or Principal was considered eligible for the post and was accordingly selected.

* Para 21.

† Ibid.



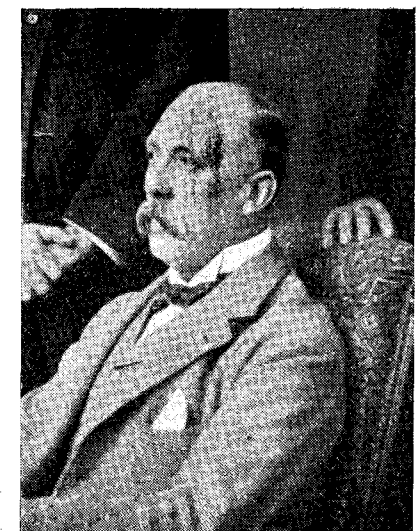
E. I. Howard
(1856-65)



Alexander Grant
(1865-68)



J. B. Peile
(1869-74)



E. Giles
(1897-1907)

Photographs of Mr. C. J. Erskine, the first D. P. I. (1855-56) and Mr. K. M. Chatfield the fifth Director (1874-97) could not be obtained.

DIRECTORS OF PUBLIC INSTRUCTION



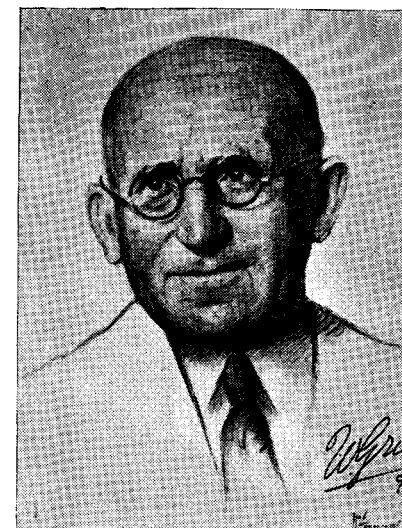
Dr. F. G. Selby
(1907-08)



W. H. Sharp
(1909-17)



R. H. Beckett
(1930-34)



W. Grieve
(1934-40)



J. G. Covernton
(1917-21)



F. B. P. Lory
(1921-30)



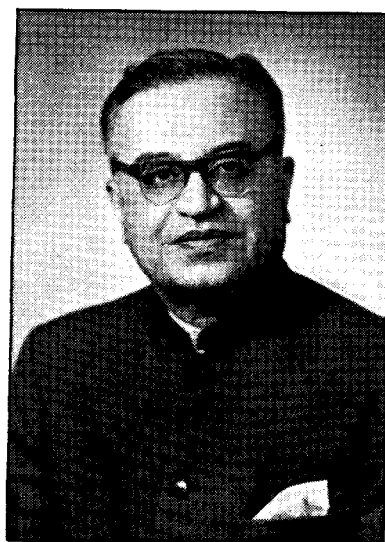
S. N. Moos
(1940-45)



R. P. Patwardhan
(1945-47)



D. C. Pavate
(1947-54)



S. S. Bhandarkar
(1954 onwards)

ed. There were, in fact, only two exceptions to this rule, viz. the appointment of Mr. E. I. Howard and Mr. J. B. Peile in 1856 and 1869 respectively. Mr. Howard was selected for special considerations and Mr. J. B. Peile was selected partly because he belonged to the Civil Service and partly because he had previously worked in the Department.

Sixteen Directors of Education have served as the Heads of the Department during the last hundred years as shown in the following table:—

TABLE 2 (4)

Directors of Education, Bombay State (1855-1955)

S. No. 1	Name. 2	From 3	To 4	Remarks 5
1	C. J. Erskine, Esq. C. S. ...	31st May, 1855	August, 1856	Went on sick leave in August 1856 and asked for reversion to the Civil Service in February, 1857.
2	E. I. Howard, Esq. ...	August, 1856	23rd June, 1865	Resigned.
3	Sir Alexander Grant ...	24th June, 1865	28th September, 1868	Resigned.
4	J. B. Peile, Esq., C. S. ...	24th April, 1869	1st March, 1874	Repatriated to the Civil Service.
5	K. M. Chatfield, Esq. ...	2nd March, 1874	31st March, 1897	Retired.
6	E. Giles, Esq. ...	1st April, 1897	24th February, 1907	Appointed Director General of Public Instruction, Government of India.
7	Dr. F. G. Selby ..	25th February, 1907	31st December, 1908	Retired.
8	W. H. Sharp, Esq. ...	1st January, 1909	January, 1917	Died.
9	J. G. Covernton, Esq. ...	11th April, 1917	26th May, 1921	Retired.
10	F. B. P. Lory, Esq. ...	27th May, 1921	19th January, 1930	Retired.
11	R. H. Beckett, Esq. ...	20th January, 1930	4th April, 1934	Retired.
12	W. Grieve, Esq. ...	5th April, 1934	8th February, 1940	Retired.
13	Shri S. N. Moos ...	9th February, 1940	10th June, 1945	Retired.
14	Shri R. P. Patwardhan ...	11th June, 1945	23rd January, 1947	Retired.
15	Shri D. C. Pavate ...	24th January, 1947	21st June, 1954	Retired.
16	Shri S. S. Bhandarkar ...	22nd June, 1954	...	Serving.

N. B.—(1) Officiating appointments of short duration have been excluded from the above table.

(2) The dates of retirement given in column 4 are either of actual retirement or of proceeding on leave prior to retirement

The scale of pay of this post has also undergone several revisions. The first Director of Education was appointed "on a salary of Rs. 2,500 a month, to be increased after fourteen years' service in India to Rs. 3,000"* This scale was revised and reduced to Rs. 2,000-2,500 in 1870-71. Mr. Chatfield drew his salary in the scale of Rs. 2,000-50-2,500; but it was revised to Rs. 2,000-100-2,500 in 1897. In 1919, the scale was further revised to Rs. 2,500-100-3,000 and in 1924, the non-Asiatic Officers who held the post were declared to be eligible to an overseas pay of £. 13-6-8 per month. This scale was in vogue till 1947 when Shri D. C. Pavate, the first officer from B. E. S. (Class I) to become the Director of Education, was given the scale of Rs. 2,000-100-2,100-200-2,500. This scale continues to be in force even today; but it has been decided that future Directors of Education would be entitled to a scale of Rs. 1,800-100-2,000 only.

2 (4). *The Office of the Director of Education.*—In 1855, when the first Director of Education was appointed, the Office of the Director was located in Bombay. It continued to be there until the retirement of Mr. J. B. Peile and was shifted to Poona in the early years of the administration of Mr. K. M. Chatfield although it is not possible to ascertain the exact year in which this change was effected. As it could not then be accommodated in a Government building, it continued to be in a rented building for a number of years first in a private house on the Sachapir Street of the Poona Cantonment and then in the bungalow of Pandita Ramabai on the Cannught Road. On the construction of the Central Buildings, it was shifted to its present location in 1913.

The last hundred years have also witnessed a great change in the size of the office of the Director of Education. In 1855, it consisted of one head clerk, 5 clerks, 3 copyists, one havildar, and 4 peons and their total salary bill came to Rs. 429 only per month. But as expansion took place and the complexity of the work increased, its strength was raised from time to time. It now consists of 16 Gazetted Officers (7 Deputy Directors of Education, 1 Personal Assistant, 1 Statistician, 1 Accounts Officer, 3 Senior Superintendents, and 3 Junior Superintendents) and 207 non-gazetted employees (162 clerks and 45 menials) and in 1954-55 its total expenditure came to Rs. 5,05,131. Great as this increase appears to be, it is far from being commensurate with the growth of educational institutions and the increase in the complexity of administrative work—The pressure of work on the office of the Director of Education is, therefore, still enormous.

2 (5). *Educational Inspectors.*—Next in rank to the Director of Education, are the *Educational Inspectors*. While being mainly in charge of secondary schools and training institutions for primary teachers, they are also expected to exercise a general supervision over all educational activities within their jurisdiction. They appoint and control most of the non-gazetted staff of the Department working in their respective districts; supervise the conduct of Departmental examinations such as the Primary Training Certificate or Primary School Certificate; function as members of the Staff Selection Committees and Appellate Tribunals constituted

under the Bombay Primary Education Act, 1947; and distribute scholarships and other concessions sanctioned in non-collegiate institutions. Their powers and duties, too varied to be enumerated here, have been laid down in the various Educational Acts, Rules, Manuals & Orders of Government, and it would be correct to say that the Educational Inspector is the principal controlling and co-ordinating Educational Officer within his jurisdiction and that he is the link between the Director of Education on the one hand and all educational institutions (other than those of collegiate level which are dealt with directly by the office of the Director of Education) within his jurisdiction, on the other.

The posts of the Educational Inspectors were created in 1855 along with that of the Director of Education and they have always been regarded as extremely important. The Despatch of 1854 had suggested that the Educational Inspectors may even be selected from the Civil Service and history shows that some of them were actually so selected in practice. Although this convention was given up in later years, the importance of the posts was never under-estimated and they were always assigned to the highest cadre of the Departmental Officers. Thus they were included under the "Superior Appointments" prior to 1896-97. On the creation of the Indian Educational Service in that year, they were mostly assigned to this service; and when the I. E. S. was abolished, they were assigned to Bombay Educational Service, Class I.

The number of Educational Inspectors is naturally equal to the number of educational divisions in the State. In 1855, the number of such divisions was four. But various changes were made in the areas of these divisions from time to time so that their number varied from four as the minimum to six as the maximum, until 1953-54, when a revolutionary measure of administrative reform which increased the number of Educational Inspectors from 6 to 24 was carried out. The reasons that suggested the change were both numerous and cogent. Owing to the tremendous expansion of education achieved during the last few years, it was now becoming increasingly patent that the old conception of an "educational division" had outlived its utility. Each Educational Inspector was in charge of about four to six districts containing some hundreds of secondary schools and several thousands of primary and special schools. It was, therefore, impossible for him to reach all parts of his division and to obtain first-hand information on its educational problems. Consequently, he had mainly to rely on the reports of his subordinates so that his personal touch with institutions and personnel was reduced to a minimum and the general educational efforts particularly in the rural areas, did not receive the benefit of his personal guidance. Moreover, the public whose contact with the office of the Educational Inspector had increased enormously in recent years, was finding it extremely inconvenient to contact him, either because his office was located at a great distance or because he was almost always out on tour. It was, therefore, decided to reorganise the administrative machinery and to regard each "District", unless there are strong reasons

to the contrary, as an "educational division". Besides, it was also considered desirable to provide each district with an Educational Officer of a status similar to that of the Collector or the District Superintendent of Police; and it was, therefore, decided that each major district should now be placed under the control of an Educational Inspector in B.E.S. Class I. Moreover, it was also decided that the office of the Deputy Educational Inspector of the district should be merged with that of the Educational Inspector so that he would have a large staff of subordinate Inspecting Officers at his command to enable him to carry out his multifarious responsibilities and duties. Obviously, the scheme has such intrinsic merits that it could have been accepted by Government even if it had involved an increase in expenditure; but it turned out that this re-organisation would result in economy. It was, therefore, immediately adopted and introduced with effect from 1st June, 1953. In the beginning, every district of the State* was made into a separate educational division except in three cases where two neighbouring districts were formed into one unit, viz., (1) Kolhapur and South Satara, (2) Ahmedabad and Amreli, and (3) Mehsana and Banaskantha. Similarly an Educational Inspector in B.E.S. Class I was placed in charge of each district except those of Kolaba, Sabarkantha, and North Kanara which were comparatively smaller areas and were, therefore, placed in charge of Educational Inspectors in B. E. S. Class II†. A further step in the same direction was taken in 1954-55 when the three combined units mentioned above were separated with effect from 1st June, 1955, so that every district of the State (including Dangs) has now become an educational division. Further, under the same orders, all posts of Educational Inspectors except those for the Districts of Amreli, Banaskantha, and Sabarkantha were assigned to B. E. S. Class I‡.

The experience of the last two years shows that the scheme has brought about a distinct improvement in administrative matters. Public convenience has been greatly secured. The Educational Inspector, who has now to control a very limited area, is able to maintain a direct and personal touch with the institutions and personnel in his charge and is also in a position to study at first hand the day-to-day problems facing the district administration. Moreover, the inspecting and administrative staff at the district level—the Educational Inspector, the Deputy Educational Inspector, and the Administrative Officer—are now better able to work as a team so that the general efficiency of the administration as a whole has been considerably toned up.

2 (6). *Deputy Educational Inspectors*.—Below the Educational Inspectors come the Deputy Educational Inspectors whose posts also were created in 1855. In the beginning, these posts were designated as "Visitors of Schools"; but this designation was changed to that of "District Inspector" and later on to that of "Deputy Educational Inspector." From

* Except Dangs, which was a very small District, looked after by a Deputy Educational Inspector who, however, was subordinate only to the Director of Education.

† G.R., E.D., No. EDI 1052 of 11-2-1953 and No. EDI 1053 of 31-3-1953.

‡ G.R., E.D., No. EDI 1054, dated 27-4-1955.

the very beginning, the idea was that these posts would be held by educated Indians and that the main duties attached to them would be the supervision of primary and middle schools. Consequently, they have rarely been held by Europeans.

Between 1855 and 1883, the Department used to conduct a very large number of primary and middle schools so that these officers had a good deal of work and importance during this period. After 1883, the primary schools were transferred to local bodies and the number of middle schools maintained by the Department was substantially reduced. Consequently, the authority of these officers diminished to some extent, although they still had a good deal of importance in rural areas because the transfer of Primary Education to District Local Boards was more or less nominal. With the passing of the Primary Education Act, 1923, however, the transfer of Primary Education to local bodies became so real and effective that there was hardly any work left for these officers. Accordingly these posts were held in abeyance until 1938 when Government resumed the powers of inspection which had been surrendered to local bodies in 1923. Since then, they continued to discharge important functions until 1953-54 when as a result of the Re-organisation Scheme, their independent status in the district was taken away and their offices were amalgamated with those of Educational Inspectors.

The posts of Deputy Educational Inspectors were regarded as subordinate right from the beginning and as they were mostly held by Indians, the question of giving them a gazetted status was not taken very seriously during the last century. In fact, a proposal to convert them into gazetted posts was turned down by the Government of India in 1896-97* and it was only in 1920, after Indianisation was definitely accepted as a policy, that they were raised to the gazetted rank and included in the Bombay Educational Service. When Classes were introduced in the B.E.S. in 1931, they were all assigned to Class II.†

2 (7). *The Assistant Deputy Educational Inspectors*.—Below the Deputy Educational Inspectors come the Assistant Deputy Educational Inspectors. This cadre, originally designated as "Sub-Deputy Inspectors", was created by Mr. E. I. Howard in 1860-61 with the main object of establishing an economical Inspectorate for primary schools which were then being multiplied at a very rapid rate. This object was secured by selecting experienced headmasters of primary schools to work as Assistant Deputy Educational Inspectors. This practice continues even today, although it is customary now to reserve about two-thirds of the total posts in the cadre for trained graduates who are recruited directly.

The Assistant Deputy Educational Inspectors form the lowest rung of the Regional Inspectorate and numerically constitute a very large proportion thereof. They were all regarded as Government servants till 1923 when their designation was changed to "Supervisors" and their services were transferred to local bodies who were invested with the powers of inspection under the Bombay Primary Education Act, 1923.

* G.R., E.D., No. 2150 of 11th November, 1896.

† G.R., E.D., No. 3803 of 27th December, 1930.

With the Amending Act of 1938, however, they were re-transferred to Government service and were given their old designation of "Assistant Deputy Educational Inspectors". Each Assistant Deputy Educational Inspector is placed in charge of all the primary schools in a "Beat" consisting of a contiguous group of villages. In the early years, the beats used to be very large in area. But as education began to spread and the primary schools increased in numbers, the areas of the beats became smaller and smaller. Similarly, the number of primary schools assigned to each Assistant Deputy Educational Inspector has also steadily decreased. In 1881-82, for instance, the average area in the charge of each Assistant Deputy Educational Inspector was 3,824 square miles and he was required to inspect about 101 schools with an average enrolment of 6,182 pupils. In 1954-55, however, the average area of each beat is 143 square miles and each Assistant Deputy Educational Inspector is required to inspect 68 primary schools with an average enrolment of about 5,000 pupils only.

2 (8). *Functional Inspectorate*.—The work of the Regional Inspectorate described above is supplemented by a large Functional Inspectorate. Chronologically, the Regional Inspectorate was created first; and the Functional Inspectorate was developed later, its various sections having been created at different times according to the requirements of the situation. During the last hundred years, the following sections were organised:—(1) Special Inspectresses for the inspection of Girls' Schools; (2) Special Inspecting Officers for Urdu or Sindhi Schools; (3) Inspecting Officers for Physical Education; (4) Inspector of Drawing and Craft-work; (5) Inspector of Schools of Commerce; (6) Inspector of Certified Schools; (7) Curator of Libraries; (8) Inspector of Anglo-Indian & European Schools; (9) Directorate of Technical Education; (10) Inspector of Visual Education; (11) Special Inspecting and Supervising Officers for Social Education for Basic and Craft Schools; (12) Inspectorate for Science Teaching; (13) School Health Service; (14) Vocational Guidance Service; and (15) Attendance Officers. Besides, the Department is required, since 1938, to maintain cadres for the Administrative Officers of District and Municipal School Boards because these posts have to be held by officers of Government.

As stated above, these Functional Inspectorates were created at different periods, their strength and importance also has varied from time to time; and some of these posts e. g. Inspectorate for Science Teaching and School Health Service have already ceased to exist. Each one of these Inspectorates, however, will be noticed in detail in the appropriate context in this Report.

2 (9). *Teaching Staff*.—The Teaching Staff of the Department consists of (1) Principals of Government Colleges; (2) Professors, Lecturers, etc. in Government Colleges; (3) Head Masters of Government High Schools and Principals of Training Institutions for Primary Teachers; (4) Assistant Teachers in Government High Schools and Training Institutions for Primary Teachers; (5) Teachers in Government Primary Schools; and (6) Head Teachers and Assistants in other Special Institutions conducted by Government.

In the early years of the Department, no distinction was made between the teaching and administrative staff. The Department maintained only

one common cadre for all its employees and transfer from a teaching to an administrative post, or *vice versa*, was not only permissible but also frequent. It was soon discovered, however, that the qualities that go to make a good professor in a college are not necessarily those that make a good administrator and several persons also expressed their unwillingness to be transferred from one cadre to another. In 1870-71, therefore, the teaching and administrative cadres were separated under the orders of Government of India, "What is required", wrote the Government of India, "is to establish two parallel and, as a rule, distinct Educational careers—one for the Tutorial branch of the Service, in which of course Professors would be included, and the other for Inspectors each branch beginning and ending with appointments of equal value, so as to obviate the necessity of frequent interchanges from one line to another on promotion, without however, absolutely prohibiting the transfer of any one who may have shown aptitude for the other branch."* Accordingly the Principals of Colleges have been held to be eligible for promotion as Deputy Directors or Directors of Education provided that they opt for the administrative line at least 10 years before the date of their retirement. Later on, a still further exception was made and it was laid down that the teaching staff of training institutions is necessarily interchangeable with that of the inspecting branch. Subject to these two reservations, therefore, the teaching cadre of the Department is now kept distinct from the inspecting staff.

The teaching staff of the Department belongs to all cadres of the Departmental service from B.E.S. Class I to Class III. It must also be remembered that most of the scales of pay given to the teaching and the administrative staff are common so that a person may elect his cadre more on considerations of temperament and capacity than on financial grounds.

The strength of the teaching staff of the Department has varied considerably from time to time, depending mainly upon the policy of Government in maintaining educational institutions of its own.

As is well known, the Departmental service offers better remuneration, greater security, and better provision for old age than that under local bodies or private agencies. The teaching staff of the Department, therefore, is generally better qualified and more efficient than that of other agencies working in the educational field. This factor, combined with a better provision of buildings and equipment, enables the Department to maintain the State educational institutions in a comparatively higher state of efficiency.

2 (10). *Growth in the Teaching and Administrative staff of the Department*.—In 1855 when the Department was created, its administrative staff was very meagre. It consisted of 12 superior officers—1 Director, 4 Educational Inspectors, 7 Visitors—and a few clerks. The exact statistics about the teaching staff are not available; but it must have been considerably large because as many as 300 educational institutions with 24,079 students were then directly conducted by the Department. The

* Report of the Director of Public Instruction, Bombay, 1870-71, p. 424.

first Directory of the Department, however, was published by Sir Alexander Grant for the year 1864-65; and thereafter it is being republished either annually or at frequent intervals. The statistics of Departmental personnel are, therefore, available in a fairly complete and comparable form since 1864-65. The following table compiled from these Directories and Annual Reports will show the increase in the Departmental personnel during the last hundred years:—

TABLE 2 (5)
Departmental Personnel (1864-65 to 1954-55)

Year.	Superior Posts.	Subordinate Posts.	Total.	Remarks.
1864-65	32	199	231	From 1864-65 to 1886-87, posts carrying a salary of less than Rs. 30 were not included in the Departmental Directories.
1870-71	42	565	607	
1881-82	65	914	979	
1886-87	73	1166	1239	
1891-92	75	1019	1094	The fall in numbers seen during this period is mainly due to the transfer of primary schools to local bodies. In contrast to the earlier period, all posts in the Department (other than peons) were included in the Directories of this period.
1896-97	68	770	838	
1901-02	73	762	835	
1906-07	83	874	957	
1909-10	83	962	1045	(Including 26 unclassified posts).
1916-17	119	1233	1352	
1921-22	173	1428	1627	
1926-27	186	1291	1477	
1931-32	192	1314	1506	The increase in the staff seen in this period is due to the large educational expansion now achieved.
1936-37	173	1082	1255	
1941-42	247	1452	1699	
1946-47	285	1687	1972	
1951-52	349	2369	2718	
1953-54	394	2566	2960	
1954-55	399	2627	3026	

2 (11). *The Departmental Services.*—A still better idea of the growth in Departmental personnel can be obtained if the problem is considered with reference to the evolution of the different Departmental Services during the last hundred years.

A—1855 to 1870

When the Department was created in 1855 there was no Educational Service as such. There were also no fixed scales of pay. The Court of Directors had only expressed a wish that steps should be taken to accord a high status to the officers of the Education Department and left all the details to the Government of India to decide. But as things turned out, the hopes of the Court of Directors did not materialise. The remuneration that came to be fixed for officers of the Department was generally lower than that offered to similar posts in other Departments like the Revenue or Police. The selections of staff were often unhappy and Sir Alexander Grant complained that the posts in the Department were often dealt with neglectfully and “given away to political retainers or filled up at

haphazard like other uncovenanted appointments.”* Consequently persons of the right type could not be attracted to service under the Department. Sir Alexander Grant, therefore, submitted proposals for the re-organisation of the superior service of the Education Department with the primary object of inducing competent Europeans to join it. He proposed revision of all scales of pay, the introduction of graded increments and better facilities for pensions. His proposals were first turned down; but later on, they were accepted with certain modifications in 1870-71.† With this event, known as the introduction of “graded list” for the superior posts in the Department, the old chaotic conditions came to an end.

B—The Graded List Service (1870-71 to 1896-97)

From 1870-71 to 1896-97, the system of graded lists was in vogue. Under this system, all the superior posts were assigned to one or the other of the sanctioned grades of pay which varied from Rs. 500-750 (given to an Assistant Inspector or a Junior Professor) to Rs. 2,000-2,500 (given to the Director of Education). The non-graded posts in the Department were by far the most numerous. They were further sub-divided into two categories—the superior appointments (which were held almost exclusively by Europeans) and the general appointments (which were held almost exclusively by Indians). These latter posts were further sub-divided into five classes—Class I (with a salary of Rs. 150 to Rs. 300); Class II (with a salary of Rs. 100 to Rs. 150); Class III (with a salary of Rs. 75 to Rs. 100); Class IV (with a salary of Rs. 50 to Rs. 75); and Class V (with a salary of less than Rs. 50).

C—The Indian Educational Service (1896 to 1949)

Experience showed that even the “graded list” service was not able to attract highly qualified Europeans to serve in India. The Public Service Commission of 1886, therefore, recommended that an Educational Service, analogous to the Civil Service, should be organised on an all-India basis; that a reasonable scale of pay should be assigned to it; and that recruitments to this service should be made by the Secretary of State for India in England. Indians would not be barred from it; but they would have to compete for it in England along with other European candidates. These recommendations were accepted by Government and the *Indian Educational Service or I.E.S.* was organised in 1896-97. Twenty one posts of this Service (excluding the post of the Director of Education which was always treated as being outside the cadre) were assigned to Bombay State.‡ These included 3 Principals of Colleges, 8 Professors, 3 Educational Inspectors, 3 Heads of High Schools, 2 Lady Superintendents of Training Colleges for Women, and the Principal and Vice-Principal of Sir J. J. School of Art, Bombay.

* Report of the Director of Public Instruction, Bombay, 1867-68, Appendix H.

† Ibid, 1870-71, Appendix E.

‡ The number of posts in this service assigned to the Bombay State was increased from time to time.

As a part of the general revision of pay scales at the end of the First World War, the pay scale of the P.E.S. also was revised. Its designation, too, was changed to Bombay Educational Service. The old P.E.S. may, therefore, be said to have come to an end in 1921-22.

The following table gives the statistics of P.E.S. Officers:—

TABLE No. 2 (7)

Provincial Educational Service Officers

Year.	Number of P. E. S. Officers.
1896-97	23
1901-02	24
1906-07	24
1909-10	25
1916-17	53
1920-21	52

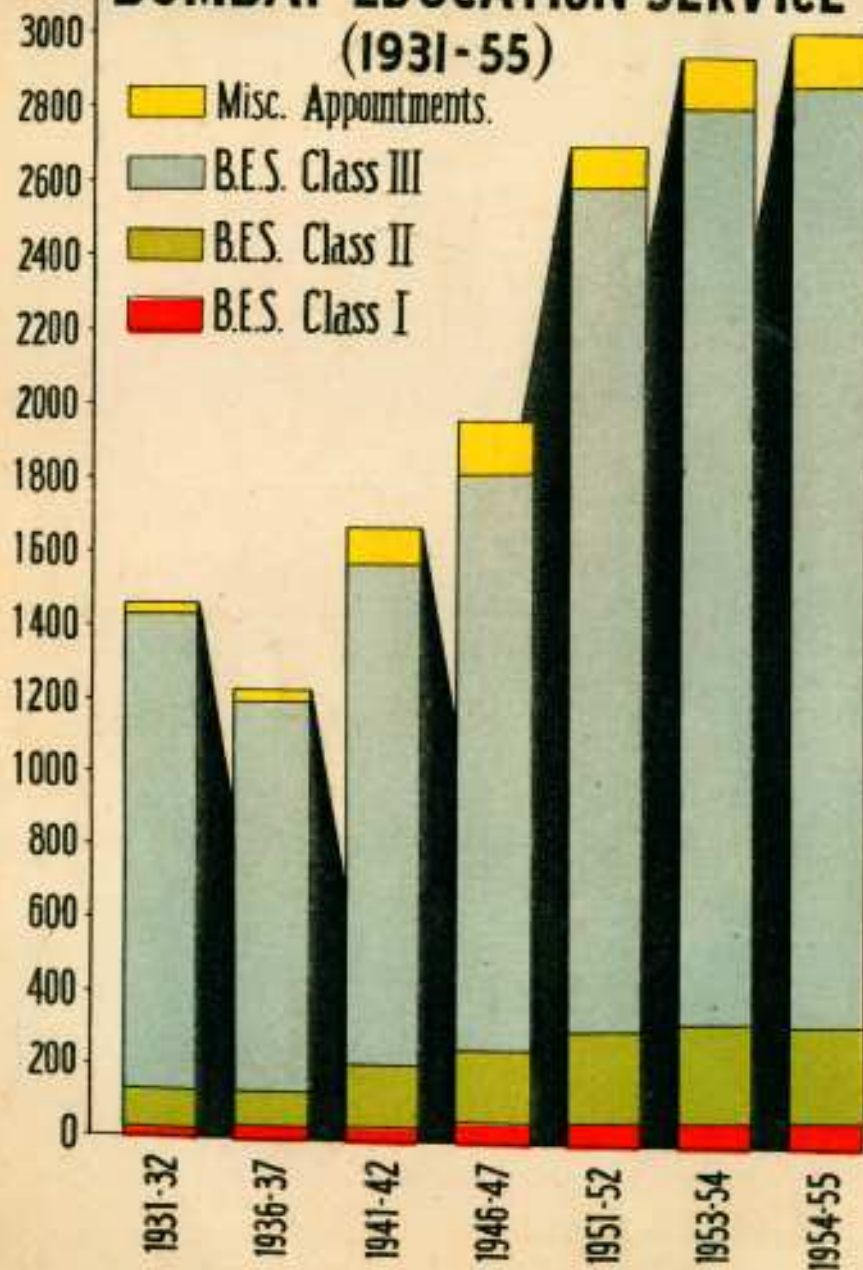
*E—The Bombay Educational Service (Classes I and II)
(1921-22 to 1954-55)*

With effect from 1st April, 1921, the Bombay Educational Service was brought into existence by modifying the scales of pay sanctioned for the old P. E. S. and by including within its fold certain additional posts (such as those of the Deputy Educational Inspectors) which were not formerly included in the P. E. S. As originally constituted, there were no classes in the B. E. S. But it had a selection grade (restricted to 20 per cent. of the total cadre) with a pay scale of Rs. 650-30-800. The ordinary time scale sanctioned for the Service was Rs. 250-20-550-E.B.-20-650. It was also suggested that the whole cadre would be divided into two categories—major posts and minor posts—and that the pay scale attached to minor posts would stop at Rs. 550. This point was further clarified in 1923 when 39 posts were declared to be minor posts.

In 1930-31, the Bombay Educational Service or the B.E.S. was again re-organised. The main reason for the change was the necessity to create a new cadre for the higher posts in the Education Department which would become increasingly vacant as the I.E.S. officers retired. It was, therefore, decided to divide the B.E.S. in two Classes—Class I which would take over all the posts vacated by the I.E.S. Officers and include several major posts of the old B.E.S. and Class II which would include all the remaining posts of the old B.E.S. The pay scale for Class I was fixed as Rs. 320-40-640-E.B.-40-1,200 with two selection grades. The higher selection grade which was restricted to 5 per cent. of the cadre was Rs. 1,400-50-1,500 and the lower selection grade which was restricted to 15 per cent. of the cadre was Rs. 1,200-50-1,350. The pay scale for Class II was Rs. 250-20-390-E.B.-20-550-E.B.-20-650 with a selection grade (restricted to 20 per cent. of the cadre) of Rs. 650-30-800.

As a result of the world economic depression, the prices of commodities fell down materially and the revenues of Government were very adversely

STRENGTH OF BOMBAY EDUCATION SERVICE (1931-55)



ected. A general revision of all scales of pay was, therefore, undertaken at this period and most pay scales were lowered. Accordingly, the scales of B.E.S., Class I and Class II were also revised in 1934. In the new revision, the selection grades were abolished and the pay scale for Class I was fixed as Rs. 300-20-420-E.B.-30-660-E.B.-40-900 and that for Class II was fixed as Rs. 170-10-250-E.B.-15-400-E.B.-20-500. But the cost of living having again gone up very high during the Second World War, the pay scales were revised in 1947. The new scale for Class I now is Rs. 350-30-650-E.B.-45-1,100 (probationers Rs. 300 for 2 years) and that for Class II is Rs. 220-15-400-E.B.-20-500-E.B.-25-650 (probationers Rs. 200 for 2 years).

F—The Subordinate Educational Service or B.E.S. Class III (1896-97 to 1954-55)

The five Classes into which the "general appointments" were divided prior to 1896-97 have already been described above in Section B. When the I.E.S. and the P.E.S. were created in 1896-97, these "general appointment" posts were designated as the Subordinate Educational Service or S.E.S. This designation was continued till 1947-48 when it was changed to Bombay Educational Service, Class III.

The scale for the Class I of S.E.S. was changed to Rs. 150-350 in 1897-98 and it was further raised to Rs. 150-400 in 1899-1900. There were no other major changes till the classes were done away with in the earlier years of this century.

The variety of posts included in the S.E.S. is very large. This cadre, therefore, has a number of pay scales which it is not necessary to enumerate here. Suffice it to say that these scales were also revised from time to time on account of the same general reasons which led to revisions of the pay scales of the higher posts.

The following table shows the strength of the Bombay Educational Service from 1931-32 to-date:—

TABLE No. 2 (8)
Bombay Educational Service
(1931-32 to 1954-55)

Year.	B. E. S. Class I.	B. E. S. Class II.	B. E. S. Class III.	Miscellaneous or special appoint- ments outside the regular services.	Total.
1931-32	21	110	1,306	23	1,470
1936-37	25	94	1,075	36	1,230
1941-42	37	171	1,370	105	1,683
1946-47	59	192	1,370	146	1,967
1951-52	66	242	2,296	114	2,718
1953-54	68	264	2,484	144	2,960
1954-55	70	264	2,543	149	3,026

N. B.—(1) The fall in 1936-37 is due to separation of Sind.

(2) The totals given in the last column for the years 1931-32, 1936-37, 1941-42, and 1946-47 do not agree with those given in Table No. 2 (5) because the latter table includes the I.E.S. posts which are excluded from this Table.

L—S 2737—5

2 (12). *Departmental Examinations*.—Before leaving this subject of the educational services, it is necessary to mention the *Departmental Examinations* which have been introduced since 1953-54 with the object of improving the efficiency of the Departmental staff. Under the scheme adopted by Government, there are three examinations in all. The first examination is meant for Gazetted Officers in the Administrative Branch including Inspectors and Assistant Inspectors of a specialist nature and also Superintendents in the Director of Education's Office and is to be conducted by the Public Service Commission. The other two examinations are to be conducted by the Department and are meant for the Administrative Branch of B.E.S. Class III and the clerical staff of the Department respectively. The nature of the examination is such as to test the ability of the employee concerned in the law and procedure with which he is usually required to deal and the passing of the relevant examination is made compulsory on all new entrants and on most of the existing employees. It is expected that a rigorous enforcement of this examination system will help materially in raising the efficiency of the Department.*

2 (13). *Indianisation*.—It will be seen from the preceding section that all the key-posts in the Education Department were held by European Officers in 1855 and that the British Government was extremely anxious to reserve these posts for Europeans for as long a time as possible and to attract competent Europeans to serve in India by offering higher scales of pay and liberal pensions. In spite of these efforts, however, Indians eventually succeeded in obtaining possession of all these key-posts.

In the early years, the general opinion was that Indians were unfit to be principals or professors in colleges or even headmasters of high schools. Needless to say, the idea of their being Educational Inspectors or Directors of Education could not even have been conceived in these days. But with the spread of education, highly educated and competent Indians became available for service in the Department and mainly owing to the valuable contribution made by them, the early prejudices of Government against the employment of Indians in higher posts began slowly to disappear. At first, Indians were appointed as headmasters of the less important high schools. Later on, when they had filled several such posts and shown their competence for some time, they began to be appointed as headmasters of important high schools as well. The appointment of Indians on the staff of colleges made a slow beginning; but the educational work of persons like Dr. Dadabhai Naoroji and Sir R. G. Bhandarkar overcame the early prejudices and Indians came to be commonly appointed to the subordinate posts in colleges. The Indian Education Commission of 1882 recommended that Indians should be more largely employed as Inspectors of Schools than in the past. This recommendation was accepted by Government and slowly, Indians were appointed as Educational Inspectors. Towards the close of the nineteenth century, Indians who had gone to England and distinguished themselves in British universities became available for service and with this event, the posts of principals and professors of colleges also began to be offered to Indians.

* G.R., E.D., No. EXM 1252 of 2-2-1953.

In spite of these changes, however, no material progress was made till 1919 when the I.E.S. was re-organised with a view to Indianisation. Under the new policy it was decided "that new recruitment should be directed towards the equalisation of the number of Europeans and Indians in this service."* In order to accelerate the attainment of this object, the strength of the I.E.S. was increased by 33 per cent. by transferring to it an equal number of the senior posts from the P.E.S. Besides, future recruitment to the I.E.S. was not to be made in England alone, although it still continued to be made by the Secretary of State for India, and suitable Indians recommended by State Governments also began to be appointed to the I.E.S. The revolutionary change brought about by this policy can be seen in the following table:—

TABLE No. 2 (9)
Indianisation of the I.E.S. (1919)

	1916-17			1921-22		
	Men	Women	Total	Men	Women	Total
Europeans in the I. E. S. in Bombay ..	33	5	38	27	3	30
Indians in the I. E. S., Bombay	1	...	1	23	1	24

With the discontinuance of further recruitment to the I.E.S. in 1924, all further recruitment for higher posts were made in B.E.S. Class I which was an exclusively Indian service from the start. Hence the pace of Indianisation was very rapid after 1921-22. In 1936-37, there were only 11 Europeans in the Bombay Education Department and the last Englishman in the Department (Mr. A. C. Farran) retired in 1945.

2 (14). *The present classification of Educational Services*.—The strength of the various educational services during 1954-55 as compared with the preceding year is given in the following table:—

TABLE No. 2 (10)
Departmental Personnel (1954-55)

		1953-54.	1954-55.
<i>Bombay Educational Service Class I</i>			
<i>Administrative Branch</i>			
(i) Direction ..	7	8	
(ii) Inspection ..	25	25	
(iii) Training Institutions and other posts ..	10	11	
Total ..	42	44	
Collegiate Branch ..	26	26	
Total, B. E. S. Class I ..	68	70	
<i>Bombay Educational Service Class II</i>			
<i>Administrative Branch</i>			
(i) Teaching ..	76	76	
(ii) Inspecting ..	59	59	
(iii) General ..	5	5	
Total ..	140	140	
Collegiate Branch ..	124	124	
Total, B. E. S. Class II ..	264	264	

* Progress of Education in India, 1917-22, p. 32.

Bombay Educational Service Class III

(i) Inspecting	...	650	644
(ii) Teaching (Colleges)	...	259	267
(iii) Teaching (Secondary schools and Primary Training Institutions).	...	626	626
(iv) Clerical	...	766	823
(v) Others	...	183	183
Total, B. E. S. Class III	...	2,484	2,543

Miscellaneous or Special Appointments outside the regular service

(i) Gazetted appointments	...	62	65
(ii) Non-Gazetted appointments	...	82	84
Total Miscellaneous appointments	...	144	149
Grand Total (All Services)	...	2,960	3,026

2 (15). *Expenditure on Direction and Inspection.*—The following table shows the expenditure incurred on direction and inspection and the proportion it bears to the total expenditure on Education from State funds:

TABLE NO. 2 (11)

Expenditure on Direction and Inspection (1855-1955)

Year.	Total expenditure on Education from State funds.	Expenditure on direction and inspection.	Percentage of col. 3 to col. 2.
	Rs.	Rs.	
1855-56	2,99,129	78,427	26.2
1864-65	8,57,272	1,41,829	16.5
1870-71	10,36,412	1,87,880	18.1
1881-82	11,28,149	2,10,967	18.7
1891-92	19,65,632	2,56,634	13.0
1901-02	21,94,163	2,73,790	12.5
1911-12	53,98,480	5,09,408	9.4
1921-22	1,69,88,259	14,65,880	8.6
1926-27	1,98,00,281	12,79,793	6.5
1931-32	1,89,57,368	13,75,371	7.3
1936-37	1,55,51,740	8,95,155	5.8
1941-42	2,06,13,082	12,99,099	6.3
1946-47	4,42,12,100	21,27,511	4.8
1951-52	11,97,79,985	38,73,265	3.2
1953-54	13,52,66,508	41,44,682	3.1
1954-55	14,93,45,133	43,10,679	2.9

It will be seen that the proportion of the expenditure on direction and inspection is continually decreasing, mainly because of the large increase in the total educational expenditure incurred by Government.

CHAPTER III
PRIMARY EDUCATION

3 (1). *Indigenous Elementary Schools.*—As described in Chapter I, Section (1), there was, in the early years of the nineteenth century, a fairly widespread system of indigenous schools in the State of Bombay. Elphinstone was of the opinion that these schools should be improved, expanded and supplemented in such a way that they would ultimately be developed into a national system of education. But this view was not accepted by the administrators of this period. Neither the Bombay Native Education Society nor the Board of Education made any attempt to assist or develop the indigenous schools. The officers of the Education Department continued the same policy of neglect in spite of the directive given by the Despatch of 1854 that the indigenous schools should, by wise encouragement, "be made capable of imparting correct elementary knowledge to the masses of the people."* Hence no grant-in-aid was given to any indigenous school till 1870. In that year, Peile made two important changes; (1) he revised the curriculum of the Departmental primary schools in such a way that Standards I and II became equivalent to almost the whole course of the indigenous elementary school; and (2) he also introduced a system of grant-in-aid for them. They could either present their pupils for inspection and claim assistance on the system of payment-by-results; or they could be given a "present" of Rs. 10 to Rs. 50 per annum if they agreed to follow a few simple rules.† But even in 1881-82 only 73 schools were so aided. The Indian Education Commission, therefore, found that the Bombay Education Department had followed a policy of "deliberate inactivity" in regard to the practical encouragement of indigenous schools and recommended that these institutions (which had survived a severe competition with the Departmental schools and had thus proved their vitality and popularity) should be encouraged in future at least.‡ But even this recommendation did not bring about a change in the Departmental policy. In 1886-87, it was reported that "the number of indigenous schools conducted on the old system is diminishing every year owing partly to their being brought on the grant-in-aid list, partly to a greater inclination of the people towards Local Board Schools and partly to the gradual extinction of the old masters."§ The old policy of neglect thus continued unchanged and the indigenous elementary schools disappeared from the scene very largely by 1921-22 and almost completely by 1936-37.

A census of the indigenous elementary schools was taken on several occasions during the nineteenth century. The following table summarises their results upto 1881-82:—

* Para. 46.

† The actual rule is as follows:—Masters who are willing (1) to submit to annual examinations, (2) to make such simple returns as the Inspector may call for, (3) to give up any bad practices which may be pointed out, (4) to adopt by degrees the method and text-books of Government schools, (5) to follow approximately vernacular Standards I and II as their course, and are favourably reported of, shall receive a yearly present, according to the improvement made, of from Rs. 10 to Rs. 50. (pp. 171-72 of the Report of the Bombay Provincial Committee of the Indian Education Commission).

‡ Report of the Indian Education Commission, p. 68.

§ Report of the Director of Public Instruction, Bombay, 1886-87, p. 33.

TABLE NO. 3 (1)

Indigenous Elementary Schools (1823-82)

Year.	Number of Schools.	Number of Scholars.	Nature of Enumeration made.
1823	1,500	31,000	Rough estimate.
1828	1,680	33,000	Rough estimate.
1842	1,420	30,000	Estimates made by the Revenue Officers.
1847	1,751	33,267	Census taken by the Educational Inspectors.
1855	2,386	70,314	Census taken by the Educational Inspectors.
1863	2,921	77,137	Census taken by the Educational and Revenue Officers.
1875	3,330	78,952	Estimate made by the Educational Inspectors.
1882	3,954	78,205	Census by the Educational and Revenue Officers.

(Taken from pages 68-69 of the Report of the Bombay Provincial Committee of the Indian Education Commission, 1882).

It will be seen from the above table that the number of the indigenous schools had been continuously increasing between 1823 and 1882. This becomes a little difficult to believe, especially in view of the total neglect of these institutions by the Education Department. Two explanations are put forward in this respect. According to the first, the number of indigenous schools increased because the desire for education was stimulated by the Departmental primary schools. According to the second, the increase in number is only apparent and is due mainly to a better method of collecting statistics. This latter view is probably nearer the truth and it is also supported by the observation of the Bombay Provincial Committee of the Indian Education Commission to the effect that the statistics for 1881-82 were collected "with considerable care by the Educational and Revenue Officers and that they probably form the most complete and accurate record of indigenous schools which has yet been compiled."*

After 1881-82, statistics of indigenous schools are not separately given in the Departmental Reports. But from the statistics of unrecognised or private institutions, it is possible to state the figures for indigenous elementary schools, separately. These have been shown in the following table:—

TABLE 3 (2)

Indigenous Elementary Schools (1882-1937)

Year.	Number of Schools.	Number of Scholars.
1881-82	3,954	78,205
1891-92	2,487	58,608
1901-02	2,470	63,196
1921-22	1,139	29,501
1936-37	542	25,017†

* Report, p. 67.

† Includes a few special schools as well.

After 1882, two types of changes affected the indigenous schools. The first is the reduction in their number—a fact which has been referred to already. But the second was a change of far greater significance. As time passed, the old type of school teachers began to die out rather quickly and their place was largely taken by teachers educated in the Departmental schools. These new teachers naturally changed the working of their schools so entirely that they now began to look like weak imitations of Departmental institutions rather than like indigenous schools proper. This change was very rapid after 1901-02 and it may be said that by 1936-37, hardly any schools of the old indigenous type were left in the State.

This disappearance of the indigenous schools retarded the spread of Primary Education very considerably because a good deal of time, money and energy was lost in replacing the old indigenous schools with the new Departmental institutions. But the policy consistently followed in Bombay has been to regard the provision of primary schools as a responsibility of Government or local bodies. No private enterprise like that of indigenous schools can ever have a large part to play in such a plan.

3 (2). *The Purandar Schools*.—A novel and interesting experiment of developing primary schools on the indigenous pattern but under the direct control of the Department was tried in the Poona District between 1836 and 1865. Lieutenant Robert Shortrede, an Officer of the Revenue Department, submitted a plan to Government "for establishing Village Schools throughout the Maratha country and elsewhere if found suitable." He proposed that schools similar to the indigenous institutions should be started by Government in villages where a sufficient number of children could be found willing to attend and where the people would agree to pay a fee of one anna per month per child. The teacher was to receive a salary of Rs. 4 to Rs. 8 from Government in addition to the whole amount of the fees collected. The schools would adopt the curriculum of the indigenous schools but, in contrast with them, they would be permitted to admit girls and the children of the backward classes. Lieut. Shortrede hoped that these schools would be attended very largely by the children of the common cultivators and the labouring classes who were not able to pay the much higher rate of fees charged in the indigenous schools. The Plan was approved by Government and introduced, as an experimental measure, in the Purandar Taluka of the Poona District (1836). It worked very successfully in practice and it was found that Government was able to educate a very large number of children at a comparatively low cost. It was also found that these schools were attended fairly largely by the backward classes who were not ordinarily admitted either in the indigenous schools or in the new Government schools. Had this experiment been properly developed, mass education in the State would have progressed very quickly in spite of the paucity of funds at the disposal of the Department. But unfortunately, it never received the attention it deserved. The special features of these schools were ignored and they were either closed or converted into the new type of Government schools some time after 1861-62. In this way an important opportunity to

It will be seen that there has been a continuous increase in the number of schools and pupils, although the rate of expansion has varied from time to time. The increase between 1854-55 and 1864-65, for instance, is due partly to the more judicious use of the funds available which was made possible by the larger powers delegated to the Department, partly to larger receipts from fees and popular contributions, and partly to the devolution of greater authority from the Central to the State Government which enabled the latter to make a more profitable use of the resources available. The still greater increase that took place between 1864-65 and 1870-71 was due mainly to the levy of the local fund cess of one anna in every rupee of land revenue. This cess was first levied in 1863 on a voluntary basis and was made universal and compulsory in 1869. It increased very considerably the funds at the disposal of the Department and enabled it to expand Primary Education on an unprecedented scale. Similarly, the increase between 1870-71 and 1881-82 is due to the system of financial decentralisation which was introduced by Lord Mayo in 1870. Under this system, the responsibility for Education was transferred from the Central to the State Government and consequently larger grants from State funds could be more easily obtained. Similarly, the increase between 1881-82 and 1891-92 was due to the larger contributions from Municipal funds which began to be made from 1884. The slight decrease that is observable between 1891-92 and 1901-02 was due to the effects of plague and famine which affected large areas of the State in the closing years of the nineteenth century. The substantial increase that is again observable between 1901-02 and 1911-12 was due to large grants from the Central Government which were made available under the vigorous policy of educational expansion adopted by Lord Curzon. The increase between 1911-12 and 1921-22 appears to be slight. But it is much greater in fact because the statistics of 1911-12 include those of several Indian States while those of 1921-22 exclude them *in toto*. The fairly large increase between 1921-22 and 1931-32 is due to the transfer of Education to Indian control under the Government of India Act, 1919, and to the keen interest shown by the Indian Ministers of Education in the development of mass education. The decrease between 1931-32 and 1936-37 is again illusory because the statistics of 1931-32 include Sind while those of 1936-37 exclude it. If Sind were to be excluded from the statistics of both the years, it will be seen that the number of primary schools rose from 12,498 in 1931-32 to 12,901 in 1936-37 and that of pupils from 9,98,325 in 1931-32 to 11,40,299 in 1936-37. The increase is small no doubt; but that is only to be expected against the background of the world economic depression whose effects were felt in India from 1930 to 1937. The rapid increase between 1936-37 and 1946-47 is due to the policy of expansion adopted by the Popular Ministry and to the inauguration of the Scheme of Voluntary Schools. The still larger increase that is seen between 1946-47 and 1954-55 is due partly to the policy of expansion adopted by the same Popular Ministry, partly to the merger of a large number of Indian States and partly to the large-scale introduction of Compulsory Primary Education.

3 (4). *Number of Schoolless Villages.*—Mere statistics of increases in the total number of primary schools do not give a correct picture of the

progress of Primary Education unless these are compared with the total number of towns and villages in the State.

Until 1921-22, Government had not accepted the principle of Compulsory Primary Education and had declared that its policy merely aimed at securing "the widest possible extension of Primary Education on a voluntary basis."* Consequently no attempt was made to fix a definite target in respect of the provision of primary schools. With the transfer of Education to the control of Indian Ministers in 1921, however, the situation changed very materially. Compulsory Primary Education was definitely accepted as a goal of State educational policy and hence it was also declared that, unless physical conditions made it impossible, it would be a duty of Government to provide a school in, or within easily accessible distance, of every village. With the declaration of this definite target statistics of villages with and without schools began to be collected and published in order to give the public an idea of the progress already made and the work that still had to be done before the goal was reached. These have been summarised in the following table:—

TABLE No. 3 (4)

Number of Towns and Villages with Schools (1921-1955)

Year.	Total number of towns and villages in the State.	Number of villages with schools.	Number of villages which do not have a school but whose educational needs are met by a school in a neighbouring village.
1921-22	21,599	7,517	Not available
1926-27	21,597	8,457	Not available
1931-32	21,679	8,700	Not available
1936-37	21,668	8,975	Not available
1941-42	21,657	13,976	3,247
1946-47	21,657	13,433	3,138
1951-52	35,733	20,825	4,106
1953-54	34,726	22,561	3,213
1954-55	34,726	25,217	3,789

N. B.—Statistics of Sind and Aden have been excluded throughout.

It will be seen that the number of schoolless villages decreased considerably between 1921-22 and 1941-42. This was due mainly to the passing of the Bombay Primary Education Act, 1923 and the Bombay Local Boards Act, 1923. The District Local Boards constituted under the latter Act had a much greater interest in Primary Education than in the past because the Bombay Primary Education Act, 1923, transferred large powers of

* Government Resolution on Educational Policy, 1913, Para. 10.

control to them. Many of them, therefore, increased taxation and multiplied the number of primary schools to a large extent. The progress was then halted for a few years owing to the world economic depression; but the introduction of the scheme of voluntary schools in 1938-39 brought about a revolutionary change. These schools were started in schoolless villages only and, as the rules of grant-in-aid were both liberal and lenient, a very large number of schoolless villages was supplied with schools between 1938-39 and 1941-42. This signal service of the voluntary schools to the cause of mass education in rural areas will always be gratefully remembered. The increase in the number of school-less villages that is noticed between 1941-42 and 1951-52 is due partly to a small decrease in the number of voluntary schools which were finding it difficult to maintain themselves in the changed economic circumstances of the post-war period; but it is mainly due to the merger of several Indian States, many of whom were educationally backward and contained a large percentage of school-less villages. The merger of Indian States, therefore, added materially to the inadequacy in this respect; and, as will be seen from the above table, the number of school-less villages in 1951-52 was even larger than in 1921-22.

In 1953-54, therefore, an intensive drive was organised to provide schools to as many school-less villages as possible. Three programmes were undertaken for this purpose. The first was the opening of independent schools in school-less villages with a population of 500 or over.* Under this scheme, as many as 1,632 schools were opened and 1,809 teachers were appointed upto 31-3-1955. Under the second scheme, known as the *group schools scheme*, small villages which could not be given independent schools of their own were grouped with a neighbouring village where a school existed already or where a new school was specially opened for the purpose. As many as 4,673 villages were provided with schooling facilities in this way and 3,042 teachers were sanctioned for this scheme till 31-3-1955. The third scheme, known as the scheme of *peripatetic teachers* was introduced with the object of providing schools for very small villages. Under it, two villages within a convenient distance of each other were grouped together and a peripatetic teacher was appointed to work in both the villages in any one of the three ways; (1) to hold the morning session of the school in one village and the afternoon session in another on the same day; (2) to hold school alternately in each village on six days of the week; and (3) to hold school on three consecutive days of each week in one village and on the remaining three consecutive days in the other. 732 villages were provided with schooling facilities under this plan and 366 teachers were appointed upto 31-3-1955.

As a result of these far-reaching reforms, the number of school-less villages has decreased very considerably since 1951-52. The following table shows the position of school-less villages in the State as on 31-3-1955:

* These were mostly single teacher institutions.

TABLE No. 3 (5)

School-less villages in the State of Bombay, (31-3-1955)

1. Total number of towns and villages in the State ...	34,726
2. Number of towns and villages with schools ...	25,217
3. Number of villages whose needs are met by the school in a town or village in close proximity. ...	3,789
4. Total number of towns and villages served by schools	29,006
5. Total number of villages without any educational facilities ...	5,720

The following table analyses the villages given in row No. 5 of the above table according to population:—

TABLE No. 3 (6)

Number of school-less villages classified according to population

Population.	Number of schoolless villages.
1000 and over	2
Between 999 and 900	1
Between 899 and 800	4
Between 799 and 700	4
Between 699 and 600	15
Between 599 and 500	14
Between 499 and 400	513
Below 400	5,167
Total ...	5,720

With a view to ascertaining the most economic manner in which primary schools can be provided to *all* villages, Government has decided to carry out educational surveys of all the districts in the State. The object of these surveys is to suggest a practicable programme under which independent schools are proposed for the big villages, group schools for small villages that cannot be economically provided with independent schools but which can conveniently be grouped together owing to their proximity, and peripatetic teachers for those small villages which can neither be grouped together nor can be given independent schools. So far, six districts of the State have been surveyed and a scheme to survey the State as a whole has been included in the Second Five Year Plan.

3 (5). *Primary Schools according to Management.*—In 1854-55, all the primary schools of the new type were conducted by the Board of Education. Consequently, the Department adopted and continued the earlier policy of conducting all primary schools under its direct control. But later on, other agencies came into the field and to-day, primary schools in the State are maintained by five different agencies, namely (1) the Central Government, (2) the State Government, (3) the District Local Boards, (4) the Authorized Municipalities, and (5) non-official Associations or individuals.

The following table shows the growth of primary schools according to management:—

TABLE No. 3 (7)

Primary Schools according to Management (1855-1955)

Year.	Number of Primary Schools under the management of							Total
	Central Govt.	State Govt.	D. L. Boards.	Municipal Boards.	Aided.	Unaided.	Indian States.	
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1854-55	...	256	66	...	322
1870-71	...	2,543	44	201	...	2,788
1881-82	...	3,811	196	1,331	...	5,338
1891-92	...	34	4,213	727	1,968	79	2,010	9,031
1901-02	...	13	3,940	717	1,929	114	2,274	8,987
1911-12	...	17	6,607	973	2,307	141	2,718	12,763
1921-22	...	46	8,498	1,308	2,690	80	...	12,622
1931-32	...	34	10,284	1,704	2,626	179	...	14,827
1936-37	...	31	9,203	1,581	1,808	278	...	12,901
1941-42	...	36	9,947	1,794	8,049	155	...	19,981
1946-47	...	36	10,213	1,870	6,684	189	...	18,992
1951-52	14	98	17,003	2,301	8,634	285	...	28,335
1953-54	10	106	18,773	2,238	9,707	296	...	31,130
1954-55	7	110	20,187	2,467	10,136	306	...	33,213

N. B.—The figures of primary schools in Indian States have been included in those under "Unaided" upto 1891-92. These were excluded between 1921-22 and 1946-47. The statistics of 1951-52, however, include the old Indian States also because they were now merged in Bombay.

The Government of India conducted only 7 primary schools in this State in 1954-55. Most of these were Railway schools. They are very old institutions; but as they used to be conducted by the different Railway Companies in the past, they did not appear separately in the Departmental statistics and were included under the general group of "aided schools". Since the taking over of all Railways by the Government of India, these are being shown separately in the Annual Reports. Their number, however, is so small that no detailed historical account of these is deemed necessary in this Review.

The schools maintained by the State Government, though more numerous than those of the Government of India, still form a very small proportion of the total number of primary schools in the State. These numbered 110 only in 1954-55 and they included practising schools attached to training institutions for primary teachers conducted by Government and a few special schools for fishermen conducted by the Director of Fisheries.

The primary schools maintained by the District School Boards numbered 20,187 in 1954-55 and they formed the largest single group of these schools. As stated in Chapter II, the District Local Boards were entrusted with the management of primary schools in 1883-84. The Bombay Primary Education Act of 1923 created Statutory Bodies called the District School Boards which were subject to the control of the District Local Boards on the one hand and the Education Department on the other, and entrusted them with the administration of all the primary schools in non-Municipal areas. The Bombay Primary Education Act of 1947 made the District School Boards independent of the District Local Boards but subject to a greater control by the Department and empowered them to administer Primary Education in all areas except those which were placed under Authorized Municipalities. It must be pointed out, however, that although these schools are *administered* by the District School Boards, they are mostly *financed* by Government which bears more than 96 per cent. of their total expenditure.

The primary schools conducted by Municipalities numbered 2,467 in 1954-55. When Primary Education was transferred to the control of Municipalities in 1883-84, *every* Municipality was required to administer the primary schools within its area. This system was in vogue till 1923, when the Bombay Primary Education Act of that year allowed only the major Municipalities—now called the Local Authority Municipalities—to administer Primary Education within their areas and directed that the District School Board concerned should manage the primary schools situated within the areas of the smaller Municipalities in the District—now called the non-Local Authority Municipalities. The Bombay Primary Education Act, 1947, reduced the number of Municipalities empowered to administer Primary Education still further. These were now called “Authorized Municipalities” and the management of the primary schools situated in the areas of other Municipalities—now called non-Authorized Municipalities—was entrusted to the District School Boards concerned as in the past. The reason for this progressive reduction in the number of Municipalities authorized to administer Primary Education within their areas is mainly financial. As the cost of Primary Education increases, the smaller Municipalities find it difficult or even impossible to manage Primary Education and to meet their share of its cost. It, therefore, becomes inevitable to relieve them of this responsibility.

The aided primary schools numbered 10,136 in 1954-55. In Bombay, Government has always held the view that primary schools should be under public management i. e. they should be maintained either by the Department or the local bodies. Hence private enterprise has always

played a minor role at the primary level. Upto 1881-82, the number of aided primary schools was very small. But it increased to 1,968 in 1891-92 because of three factors: (1) the transfer of Primary Education to local bodies; (2) the strong recommendation of the Indian Education Commission to the effect that private primary schools should be given every encouragement; and (3) financial stringency which often compelled the local bodies to prefer giving aid to a private school than to open a costlier school of their own. Between 1891-92 and 1936-37, therefore, the number of aided schools was between two to three thousand. In 1938-39, the Scheme of Voluntary Schools was introduced and Government announced its intention, for the first time in the history of Primary Education, to encourage private primary schools in school-less villages. The response to the appeal which Government issued at this time was so great that the number of aided primary schools increased from 1,808 in 1936-37 to 8,049 in 1941-42.

This policy has remained in force ever since; but the results of its working have not been quite satisfactory. Prior to 1936-37, almost all the bigger villages were already provided with local authority schools. The voluntary schools provided educational facilities to a large number of villages of a middling size—say 400 to 700. But they could not maintain themselves in the still smaller villages because their grants, which depend upon attendance, were reduced considerably in such places. Government had, therefore, to organize group-schools or to appoint peripatetic teachers to meet the needs of very small villages. Secondly, it was found, that even in the bigger villages the voluntary schools were often unable to maintain themselves under the stress of modern economic conditions and had to be closed. In such cases, Government has to step into the breach and establish local authority schools in order that the villages concerned should not be deprived of their educational facilities. Thirdly, it is found that the financial resources of the voluntary schools are meagre and they are, therefore, unable to provide facilities like decent remuneration or old-age provision to their teachers. Government has, therefore, slightly revised its decision in this respect. Under the latest orders, Government has reiterated its old policy that Primary Education shall be provided, as far as possible, through Government or local authority schools; and that if any private agency decides to close its primary schools, Government will undertake to start public primary schools to take their place. While, therefore, every advantage shall necessarily be taken, even in future, of all the private enterprise available in the field of Primary Education, the programme of providing Universal, Compulsory, and Free Primary Education is no longer dependent upon the uncertain factor of private schools.

The unaided schools numbered only 306 in 1954-55. Upto 1881-82, all primary schools in the old Indian States which were supervised by the Department were classified as “unaided” because all expenditure on their account was met from the funds of the Indian State concerned. Hence their number appears to be large. These schools were then shown separately in the statistics till 1917-18 when the Department ceased to have any connection with education in the Indian States. If these schools in

the areas of Indian States are excluded, it will appear that the number of unaided primary schools has always been very small. These mostly included institutions to which aid could not be extended on account of low standards or non-compliance with Departmental rules and, therefore, they hardly need any comments.

3 (6). *Legislation*.—Legislation on Primary Education is needed (1) if the principle of compulsory education is to be adopted or (2) if the management of primary schools is to be entrusted to local bodies. Prior to 1881-82, the principle of compulsory education had not been accepted and all primary schools were either managed or aided by the Department. Consequently, all the legislative requirements of their administration could easily be met by the executive orders of Government and the need to legislate on the subject of Primary Education had not been felt at all.

The Indian Education Commission, however, recommended the transfer of Primary Education to the control of local bodies and suggested that while "some legislation is necessary for the proper control of Primary Education, the scope and character of the legislative action required must be decided by each Province for itself in consideration of its own needs and circumstances."* The recommendation was accepted by Government and hence the Local Self-Government Acts passed in 1884 contained a provision to the effect that Government may make rules prescribing the extent of the "independent authority" of local bodies in respect of public education and their relations with the Education Department. In exercise of these powers, rules were framed for the administration of Local Board or Municipal primary schools and they may be regarded as the first legislation to be passed in the State on the subject of Primary Education.

But even rules framed by Government cannot serve the purpose when compulsory education is to be introduced. The enforcement of compulsion implies the prosecution of defaulting parents in a Court of Law and this cannot be done unless authorized by an Act of the Legislature. Hence the need to pass an Act on the subject of Primary Education began to be felt when the principle of compulsory education had to be adopted. The first Act on Primary Education, therefore, was the Patel Act or the Bombay Primary Education (District Municipalities) Act, 1918, whose sole object was to permit Municipalities to introduce compulsory education within their areas subject to certain conditions. In 1920, a separate Act was passed for the City of Bombay with the same objective of enabling the Bombay Municipality to introduce Compulsory Primary Education in its area. Thus began a tradition of having a separate Act for the administration of Primary Education in the City of Bombay. It is still kept up and the latest legislation on the subject is the City of Bombay Primary Education (Amendment) Act of 1950.† In 1923, the Bombay Primary Education Act was passed. It repealed the Patel Act and was applicable to all urban and rural areas, except the City of Bombay. It was amended materially in 1938 and finally, the Bombay Primary Education Act of 1947 replaced it *in toto*. The principal provision of all these Acts have been noticed already in Chapter I, Sections 6 and 7.

* Report, p. 565.

† Both these Acts will be noticed in detail in Section (12) *Infra*.

The objects of legislation on the subject of Primary Education are three (1) to provide for the administration of Primary Education by the local bodies; (2) to provide for the enforcement of compulsory education; and (3) to provide for the basis of grant-in-aid from Government to local bodies and from Government and/or local bodies to private primary schools. The details of the arrangement made under all these three heads by the enactments mentioned above will be described, in the appropriate context in the paragraphs that follow.

3 (7). *Administrative Arrangements*.—Prior to 1863, all primary schools were financed and administered by the Education Department. It was then laid down as an important duty of the Deputy Educational Inspector to administer and inspect all primary schools within his jurisdiction, subject to the general control and supervision of the Educational Inspectors; and for this purpose, he was given the help of a number of Assistant Deputy Educational Inspectors.

From 1864-65, the receipts of the local fund cess began to come in and a very large number of primary schools were established and maintained from cess revenue. This new development necessitated a change in the administration because Primary Education had now to be jointly administered by the Department and the Local Fund Committees or Local Boards in which the cess revenue was vested. Therefore, a new system of administration was evolved. Under it, a separate account was maintained for the Local Fund of each district and the following were credited into it; (1) all receipts of the cess; (2) all contributions paid by Municipalities on account of the cost of Primary Education within their areas; (3) all fees collected in primary schools; (4) grants-in-aid given by Government to the District Fund on account of Primary Education; (5) all other miscellaneous receipts within the District on account of primary schools or Primary Education. Similarly, all expenditure on Primary Education within the District was debited to this Fund. In theory, this Fund vested in the local bodies on whose behalf the cess revenue was collected and hence the District and Taluka Local Boards were given large financial powers. They administered the entire District Fund for Primary Education; prepared their own budgets; transferred or closed schools; regulated fees; and no new schools could be established without their authority. The powers of the Department, on the other hand, were more restricted. It prescribed the syllabus; appointed and controlled the primary teachers; and arranged for the inspection of primary schools. But this theoretical position was never realised in practice. Mainly owing to the non-development of local bodies, the Taluka or District Local Boards did not generally exercise their powers but delegated them to the Departmental officers. The Indian Education Commission was, therefore, constrained to point out that although the financial power of the local boards was complete, their practical control over Education was limited by their want of confidence in themselves and by the delegation of their own powers to the Departmental officers.* In other words, Primary Education was now *financed* very largely from the local fund cess. But the control exercised by the local boards was more or less nominal and

* Report, pp. 153-4.

Primary Education continued to be *administered* by the Departmental officers as in the past. These arrangements were in vogue till 1883-84.

In 1883-84, every Municipality was required to take over the administration of Primary Education and also to finance it. Therefore, a separate Education Fund was organised for each Municipality and consequently, the District Education Fund was restricted to rural areas only. The Municipalities could set up School Committees for the administration of Education within their area or exercise their power direct, if they chose to do so. They were now given all the financial powers which the local boards enjoyed in the past, *viz.*, the power to sanction budgets, to open or close schools, to regulate fees, etc. In addition, they were also given the powers to control the staff employed in primary schools, subject to the proviso that these powers could be delegated to the Departmental officers if necessary. Similar powers were also conferred on the District Local Boards in respect of the primary schools in rural areas and the Department was entrusted with the inspection, the framing of the syllabus, the training of primary teachers, etc. But even during this period, the local bodies did not exercise any effective control. The District Local Boards delegated most of their powers to the Departmental officers as in the past; and as the awakening in urban areas was greater, Municipalities alone were able to exercise some effective control in practice. In short, it may be stated that, between 1883-84, and 1921-22

(1) The Department inspected all the primary schools in the State and exercised a general supervision over the administration of Primary Education, besides having the exclusive authority to make rules and regulations, to train teachers and to prescribe the syllabus;

(2) The District Local Boards sanctioned the Educational Budget (prepared by the Deputy Educational Inspector of the District), decided upon the location of schools and regulated fees. All other powers vested in them such as the authority to appoint, promote, transfer, punish or dismiss teachers, to fix salaries, allowances and pension contributions, to grant leave, etc. were exercised by the Department on their behalf.

(3) The Municipalities exercised greater effective control in practice and administered Primary Education in their areas subject, however, to the rules and regulations made by the Department. Even in respect of these schools, however, the Department still retained a large amount of direct and indirect control.

The Primary Education Act of 1923 made a revolutionary change in these arrangements. All the major Municipalities and all District Local Boards (which were also empowered to manage the primary schools situated within the limits of the minor Municipalities in the District) were now regarded as "Local Authorities". Each local authority was required to elect a School Board—to be called the District or Municipal School Board as the case may be—consisting of not less than 12 and not more than 16 members. Seats on the School Boards were reserved for women, experts in Education, and representatives of the backward classes and minorities; and on the District School Boards, representation was also given to the

minor Municipalities—now called the non-Local Authority Municipality—whose primary schools were entrusted to them. Each School Board had a Chief Executive Officer, called the Administrative Officer, and he was given a staff of supervisors to assist him in his work. The Department now retained only the authority to make rules under the Primary Education Act and a skeleton staff of 2 or 3 officers in each district to inspect a few schools and tender general advice to the School Boards. But all other powers of inspection, administration, and control were transferred to the local bodies. As a simultaneous reform was also carried out to make the local bodies truly democratic, the powers vested in the School Boards began to be exercised fully in practice and the authority of the Department was reduced to a minimum.

But several complaints arose regarding the working of the Primary Education Act of 1923, and it was repeatedly urged that the powers transferred to the local bodies were not being properly utilized. Government, therefore, carried out a radical reform in 1938. The powers of inspection were now assumed by Government; the posts of the Deputy Educational Inspectors which were held in abeyance since 1923 were revived; and the subordinate inspecting staff which was employed by the School Boards was taken over in Government service. Moreover, the Administrative Officers of the School Boards were made Government servants and all powers of control over the teaching staff—it was in this field that the administration of local bodies had come in for most criticism—were vested in the Administrative Officer and *not* in the School Board. There was a good deal of criticism of this re-transfer of authority to the Department; but the experience of the working of the Primary Education Act, 1938 proved to be so hopeful that this fundamental reform has come to stay.

The Primary Education Act of 1947 went a step further and introduced some major changes in the administration of Primary Education. Only a few big Municipalities—now called the Authorized Municipalities—were empowered to manage the Primary Education within their areas and they were given the same powers as under the Primary Education of 1923 (as amended in 1938). But the District School Boards were made independent of the District Local Boards and their powers were curtailed still further because almost the whole of their expenditure had to be provided by Government. Secondly, a change was made in the constitution of all School Boards and power was taken by Government to nominate not more than 3 members—one of them being an official—on every School Board. Thirdly, the School Boards were authorised to appoint Assistant Administrative Officers or Supervisors to assist the Administrative Officer. Fourthly, Staff Selection Committees consisting of the Chairman of the School Board, the Administrative Officer, and the Educational Inspector were constituted for each School Board and were empowered to select persons for all appointments under the Board. And fifthly, Appellate Tribunals consisting of the Chairman of the School Board and the Educational Inspector were constituted to hear appeals against the disciplinary orders passed by the Administrative Officer in respect of his subordinate staff. All matters coming before the

Tribunal are to be decided unanimously and, in the case of a difference of opinion, the matter is to be referred to the Director of Education whose decision is final. These arrangements are working even more satisfactorily than those under the Primary Education Act of 1938 and it appears that, at long last, a satisfactory solution of the vexing problem of adjusting the relations between the Department and local bodies has almost been reached.*

3 (8). *Grant-in-aid to District Local Boards on account of Primary Education.*—The local fund cess was first imposed as a voluntary rate in 1863 and its levy was generalised in 1869. This new source of finance brought in large additional funds to the support of Primary Education and the problem now posed was this: Should the local fund cess be held exclusively responsible for the support of Primary Education or should a grant-in-aid be given to it from the funds of the State Government? And if the latter alternative is decided upon, what should the rate of this grant-in-aid be? At this time, the entire financial control vested with the Government of India and hence the following orders on this problem were passed by the Governor-General in 1871 :—

“It has been repeatedly declared by the Secretary of State that it is a primary duty to assign funds for the education of those who are least able to help themselves, and that the education of the masses, therefore, has the greatest claim on the State funds.....It has, moreover, been repeatedly affirmed that we must look to local exertion and to local cesses to supply the funds required for the maintenance of primary schools. These standing orders may seem inconsistent, but they really are not so. The fact is that Primary Education must be supported both by Imperial funds and by local rates. It is not by any means the policy of the Government of India to deny to primary schools assistance from Imperial Revenues; but, on the other hand, no sum that could be spared from those revenues would suffice for the work, and local rates must be raised to effect any sensible impression on the masses. This does not lessen the obligation of Government to contribute as liberally as other demands allow, to supplement the sums raised by local effort.....A rule, however, should be laid down that the State contribution is not to exceed one-half of the aggregate contributions from all other sources, or one-third of the total expenditure on education in the school concerned.”†

Owing to financial stringency, however, the actual grant-in-aid given to the District Local Boards was much below the standard laid down in the above orders—one-third of the total expenditure or one-half of the local assets—and it was only about 1895-96 that the standard was actually reached.‡

This basis of grant-in-aid was obviously inadequate. The revenue from the local fund cess was meagre and inelastic; and the grant-in-aid from State funds was even smaller and equally inelastic. The progress

* The administration of Primary Education in Bombay City will be noticed in Section (12) *Infra*.

† Government Resolution, Home Department, No. 60, dated 11th February, 1871.

‡ Report of the Director of Public Instruction, Bombay, 1896-97, p. 28.

of Primary Education began, therefore, to be adversely affected. Hence, in the early years of the present century, Government gave large non-recurring grants to the District Local Boards in order to enable them to overcome the effects of plague and famine which affected the State in the last decade of the nineteenth century and also increased the rate of Government grant to one-half of the total expenditure.*

But even this reform was not adequate to meet the situation. The expenditure on Primary Education was increasing very fast, partly on account of expansion and partly on account of the attempt to increase the remuneration of primary teachers. The Local Boards were not able to meet their share of this additional expenditure on account of the inelastic revenues and Government, therefore, decided as a transitional measure, to bear all the additional expenditure from its own funds. But as the situation did not improve in any way, it was decided in 1912, that all additional expenditure on Primary Education should be borne *permanently* from Government funds.† In other words, the District Local Boards were required to contribute one-third of the revenue from the local fund cess to Primary Education and once they did so, all further expenditure was borne by Government. This arrangement was in force till 1921-22.

Under the Bombay Primary Education Act, 1923, an attempt was made to change this basis of grant-in-aid and to transfer a larger financial burden to the District Local Boards. The new basis of grant-in-aid fixed under this Act was a little complicated. The year prior to that in which the control of Primary Education was transferred to a District Local Board was called the “Datum-year” of that Board. The total recurring expenditure of that Board on Primary Education in the Datum year was called the “Datum Expenditure” and the assets of the Board on account of Primary Education in the same year (such as one-third part of local cess, fees, etc.) were called the “Datum-assets”. One-twelfth of the Datum-assets was set aside for non-recurring expenditure and the difference between the Datum-expenditure and eleven-twelfths of the Datum-assets was called the “Datum-grant”. The annual grant to each District Local Board was made equal to the Datum grant and two-thirds of all the approved recurring expenditure in excess of the Datum-expenditure. In other words, the recurring grant payable to a Local Board in any particular year would be calculated according to the following formula:—

Grant payable in a year.—Datum grant plus 2/3 (approved recurring expenditure in that year minus Datum-expenditure).

The two important features of this change are (1) Government did not want to reduce its existing expenditure on Primary Education and hence every local board was given a fixed grant-in-aid equal to the Datum-grant; but (2) Government agreed to bear only two-thirds of the additional expenditure incurred in future while, under the old system, it would have been required to bear *all* the additional expenditure. This

* G. R., E. D., No. 1749 of 29-4-1903.

† G. R., E. D., No. 1248 of 20-5-1912.

second aspect naturally implied that the District Local Boards would now be required to allocate larger resources to Primary Education. In order to enable them to do so, the Bombay District Local Boards Act, 1923, permitted them to raise the rate of the local fund cess to two annas in a rupee and also gave them authority to impose some new taxes.

But unfortunately, this basis did not work out satisfactorily. The cost of Primary Education began to rise very rapidly after 1936-37, owing partly to the large scale introduction of compulsory education and partly to the rise in the cost of living during the Second World War. The District Local Boards were, therefore, unable to meet even one-third of the increase in expenditure and Government was compelled to go back to the basis adopted in 1912. Under the Primary Education Act of 1947, therefore, each District Local Board was required to levy the local fund cess at three annas in a rupee and to ear-mark 5/12th of the proceeds to Primary Education. Once they did so, Government agreed to bear all the additional expenditure required from its own funds. In practice, this basis implies that Government has to pay more than 96 per cent. of the total expenditure incurred by the District Boards on Primary Education, but an adequate provision of compulsory education in rural areas does not appear to be possible on any other basis.*

3 (9). *Grant-in-aid to Municipalities on account of Primary Education*.—Prior to 1883-84, the Municipalities had no authority to administer Primary Education. The primary schools in their areas were, therefore, maintained by the District Local Boards and the Municipalities were merely *permitted* to contribute to the funds of the Board concerned on account of the expenditure which it incurred in maintaining primary schools within their limits. In actual practice however, the Municipal contributions were very small in comparison with the cost of Primary Education within their areas.

In order to compel the Municipalities to bear their legitimate burden of the cost of Primary Education, they were first given the authority to administer it. From 1883-84, every Municipality was required to manage the primary schools within its area and Government agreed to give it a grant-in-aid at one-third of the total expenditure. In order to enable the Municipalities to bear this additional burden, they were exempted from police charges i. e. the contribution levied for the maintenance of police and several other small contributions which they were required to make.

The Government grant to Municipalities was not calculated annually but was usually fixed on a contract basis for a term of years. The first contract was made in 1884. This was revised in 1893 and again in 1903 when the rate of grant-in-aid was raised to one-half of the total expenditure. The next revision took place in 1912-13 when the contract grant was fixed at 50 per cent. of the expenditure incurred in 1911-12. In 1918, the system of contract grants was abandoned and grants began to be assessed annually at 50 per cent. of the expenditure incurred during the preceding year.

* For a detailed account of the grants-in-aid to District Local Boards on account of Primary Education. See J. P. Naik: History of the Local Fund Cess (appropriated to Education) in the Province of Bombay.

It will be seen from the above account that all Municipalities were treated alike from 1883-84 and *every* Municipality, irrespective of its financial status, was given a grant-in-aid at exactly the same rate. This practice naturally caused hardships to the poorer Municipalities. This uniform rate of grant-in-aid was, therefore, abandoned under the Bombay Primary Education Act, 1923. The Municipalities were now grouped into two general categories: (1) the major Municipalities were designated as Local Authority Municipalities and were given a grant-in-aid at 50 per cent. of the total approved expenditure during the preceding year; and (2) the smaller Municipalities were designated as non-Local Authority Municipalities and were required to contribute only one-third of the total expenditure on Primary Education incurred within their limits.

The Local-Self-Government Committee, 1937, recommended that these two broad categories were hardly adequate and suggested that the richer Municipalities should be required to contribute more liberally to the cost of Primary Education. Accordingly, the grant to Local Authority Municipalities were refixed as follows in 1940:—

<i>Municipality</i>	<i>Government Grant</i>
1. Ahmedabad ...	25 per cent. of the total approved expenditure.
2. Poona, Surat and Sholapur. ...	One-third of the total approved expenditure.
3. Other Local Authority Municipalities ...	One-half of the total approved expenditure.

N.B.—No change was made in the rate of grant-in-aid to non-local Authority municipalities.

The Bombay Primary Education Act, 1947, made still further changes in the system of grants-in-aid and liberalised the grants to Municipalities to some extent.

The new grants fixed under this Act were as follows:—

<i>Municipality</i>	<i>Grant-in-aid</i>
1. Ahmedabad ...	Twenty-five per cent. of the total approved expenditure on voluntary education and 50 per cent. of the total approved expenditure on compulsory education.
2. Poona, Surat and Sholapur.	One-third of the total approved expenditure on voluntary education and 50 per cent of the total approved expenditure on compulsory education.
3. Other Authorized Municipalities	One-half of the total approved expenditure on Primary Education.

The non-Authorised Municipalities were now required to contribute only at 3/8 per cent. of the total rateable value based upon the capital value (or 5 per cent. of the total rateable value based upon the annual letting value) of the real property situated within their limits and the old basis of fixing their contribution at a certain percentage of the expenditure incurred within their areas was abandoned. This was a very welcome relief to these smaller Municipalities whose resources were comparatively limited.*

3 (10).—*Grant-in-aid to Private Primary Schools.*—Prior to 1854-55, there was no system of grant-in-aid to private primary schools. The first rules of grant-in-aid were framed in 1856-57; but these rules as well as their later revisions were so framed that primary schools could hardly fulfil their requirements and claim grants under them, suited to the peculiar conditions of private enterprise in the field of Primary Education. Consequently, the number of aided schools remained very small and, even in 1881-82, only 196 primary schools received aid from the Department.

When Primary Education was transferred to the control of local bodies in 1884, the question of the agency through which aid should be given to private primary schools came up for discussion. The local bodies were rather unwilling to assume this responsibility and the private schools were equally unwilling to be placed under local administration. Government, therefore, refrained from passing very clear-cut orders on the subject of making grants. It was laid down as a general principle that, as far as possible, all schools in a given area—whether public or private—should be under the single control of the local body concerned. But Government reserved to itself the right to give direct grants to any private primary school and the Boards also were directed “not to interfere in any way with such schools as do not desire to receive aid or to be subject to its supervision.” Consequently, a variety of practices soon grew up. In the areas under the District Boards the private schools were not unwilling to be subject to the supervision of the District Boards and to receive aid from them, because the administration of Primary Education in the District Local Board areas was really in the hands of the Departmental officers. Hence all private schools in the Board areas were given aid from the District Education Fund till 1896-97. In Municipal areas, however, the situation was entirely different. Here a large number of private schools was unwilling to be under Municipal control. Moreover, several Municipalities did not have adequate funds to assist the private schools. Hence the Department began to give direct aid to private schools in Municipal areas and the amount so spent was regarded as being outside the fixed contract grant to the Municipalities. This precedent created a demand that the same concession should be extended to Local Boards also; and it began to be pressed as the finances of the Boards began to deteriorate. Government, therefore, granted it in 1897-98 and from that year private primary schools in rural areas also began to receive direct grants from the Department.

This system continued till 1923. The over-all transfer of Primary Education to the control of local bodies under the Bombay Primary Educa-

* The grant-in-aid to the Bombay Municipality will be dealt with in Section (12) *Infra*.

tion Act of 1923 necessarily implied that all private schools should in future, be aided by the District or Municipal School Board, as the case may be. Therefore, the private primary schools again came under the control and supervision of local bodies. In 1938-39, however, an exception was made to this general practice and Government decided to give direct grants to voluntary schools started under the drive to liquidate mass illiteracy. This exception was made partly because the District School Boards did not have the resources to aid these schools and partly because Government was very anxious to promote the scheme as quickly as possible. But it led to an anomaly, viz., the older private schools which were aided by the Boards often received smaller grants than the new voluntary schools. The Bombay Primary Education Act, 1947, therefore, regularised the position once more by directing that all private primary schools shall be aided only through the School Boards concerned.*

With regard to the system and rate of grant-in-aid, it may be stated that, under the first rules of grant-in-aid promulgated in 1857-58, Government promised assistance, not exceeding 50 per cent. of the total expenditure, to such primary schools as may be approved for this purpose. But hardly were any schools aided under this plan. In 1865-66, the system of payment-by-results was adopted. An idea of its working can be had from the following provisions of the Grant-in-Aid Code, 1865:—

Standards for Vernacular Schools

I Standard

- 1st Head: Arithmetic, Addition and Multiplication Tables.
- 2nd Head: Writing syllables.
- 3rd Head: Reading 1st and 2nd Books.

II Standard

- 1st Head: Arithmetic, four Simple Rules.
- 2nd Head: (a) Writing Simple Words.
(b) Reading and explanation of 3rd Book.

III Standard

- 1st Head: Arithmetic upto Rule of Three.
- 2nd Head: Writing to dictation from a Senior School Book.
- 3rd Head: Reading and explanation of 4th Book.

IV Standard

- 1st Head: Arithmetic, complete.
- 2nd Head: Vernacular Writing from dictation.
- 3rd Head: (a) Reading current Vernacular Literature, including Newspapers.
(b) Paraphrasing Vernacular Poetry taken from ordinary school books.
- 4th Head: (a) Vernacular Grammar.

* The only exception to this general rule is that of the practising schools attached to private training colleges for primary teachers. These receive aid directly from the Department at 50 per cent. of their approved expenditure.

Rates of Grant-in-aid for passing the above standards

	1st Head	2nd Head.	3rd Head.	4th Head.	Total.
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
I Standard					1
II Standard	1	1	0	0	2
III Standard	1	1	1	0	3
IV Standard	1	1	1	1	4

With capitation allowance of As. 8 on the average attendance of pupils during the year.

[Taken from the Report of the Director of Public Education, Bombay, 1865-66. pp. 172-74.]

These standards as well as the rates of grant-in-aid were revised in 1866-67, 1870-71, 1877-78, 1887-88 and 1901-02. It is hardly necessary to go into the details of these revisions. It is enough to state that, in spite of all these revisions, the aid actually given to any school did not ordinarily exceed one-third of its total expenditure. In other words, the same principle which had been made applicable to the grants-in-aid to Local Boards or Municipalities was adopted in the case of other private schools as well.

Early in the present century, Curzon directed that the system of payment-by-results should be discontinued. Accordingly, the Grant-in-Aid Code was revised and a new system of aid was introduced. The more efficient private schools which followed the regular primary standards were registered under Chapter II of the Code and were awarded grants upto one-third of the total expenditure or one-half of the local assets.* The other primary schools were registered under Chapter III of the Code and were given grants on capitation basis, subject to an upper limit of Rs. 150 per school. It will be noticed that the rate of grant-in-aid to private schools remained unchanged during this period also, although the grants to Local Boards and Municipalities were considerably liberalised.

The following table shows the number of primary schools aided, the number of pupils attending them, and the total cost as well as the grant-in-aid per pupil between 1881-82 and 1921-22:—

TABLE No. 3 (8)

Amount of Aid to Private Primary Schools (1881-82 to 1921-22)

Year.	Number of Aided Primary Schools.	Number of Pupils in Aided Primary Schools.	Total cost per pupil in Aided Primary Schools.	Total cost per pupil to Public Funds (i. e. State Local Board or Municipal Funds).
1	2	3	4	5
			Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.
1881-82	196	13,902	4 8 7	1 11 5
1891-92	1,968	81,509	5 11 5	1 6 1
1901-02	1,929	84,197	7 4 4	1 8 1
1911-12	2,307	1,09,415	9 2 8	2 6 2
1921-22	2,690	1,28,720	15 3 6	5 0 7

Under the Bombay Primary Education Act of 1923 this old policy was continued with a few slight changes. Aided schools were now divided into two Classes—A and B—according to the standards maintained. The Class A Schools were aided at Rs. 10 per pupil (raised to Rs. 12 if the school was free) while the B Class Schools were aided at Rs. 4 per pupil. Besides, there was an upper limit of Rs. 200 to the total grant-in-aid payable to a Class B School. These rules actually led to a diminution in the amount of grant-in-aid and the position of aided schools was adversely affected.

In 1938-39, however, the Scheme of Voluntary Schools was introduced. It broadly adopted the basis of grant-in-aid to Class B Schools but liberalised the conditions of grant so that the number of aided schools increased very rapidly. But during the Second World War, the cost of living rose so sharply that these rates of grant-in-aid proved to be very inadequate and the number of aided schools began to diminish very rapidly. In 1946, therefore, Government revised the grants-in-aid to voluntary schools very liberally. The capitation grant was now fixed at Rs. 12 for each backward class pupil and girl and Rs. 10 for other pupils. Besides, a special dearness allowance grant at two-thirds of the rates sanctioned by Government was also made. In case of associations conducting a number of voluntary schools, another special grant for overhead expenses at 75 per cent. of the approved expenditure was also sanctioned. This change in policy helped very greatly in stabilising the position of the voluntary schools.

Under the Bombay Primary Education Rules, 1949, the old distinction between Class A and Class B Schools was done away with, and all schools were now given capitation grants on the basis sanctioned in 1946. It was laid down, however, that these grants would be proportionately

* These grants were usually fixed for a term of years.

reduced if the standard of instruction maintained in the school was not satisfactory.*

3 (11). *Compulsory Primary Education*.—The demand for Compulsory Primary Education was put forward very early and the first demand of this type is even older than the Department itself. As early as in 1852, Captain Wingate, the then Revenue Survey Commissioner, to whom the proposal for the levy of the local fund cess had been referred for opinion, suggested that the proceeds of the cess should be utilised for the introduction of Compulsory Primary Education of three years for all sons of agriculturists.** It goes without saying that the proposal was turned down as premature. But the demand was again repeated before the Indian Education Commission in 1882 by several witnesses, the prominent among whom was Mahatma Jotiba Phule.† But the Commission did not consider it necessary even to discuss the proposal. In 1884, the Deputy Educational Inspector of Brôach (Shri Shastri) put forward a scheme for introducing compulsion in his area; but it was rejected by the Collector on the ground that it was a “wild scheme” for advancing the interest of Education.‡ Sir Chunilal Setalwad, a prominent public worker of Bombay, submitted a memorandum to Government in 1894 and suggested that Compulsory and Free Primary Education supported by a local rate should be provided in all Municipal schools. The demand was, however, turned down by Government on the ground that the principle of compulsory education was totally unsuitable to Indian conditions.§ Between 1902 and 1906, Sir Ibrahim Rahimtoola pressed for the introduction of Compulsory Primary Education in the City of Bombay in his budget speeches in the Bombay Legislative Council. In consequence, a Committee to enquire into the problem was appointed in 1906 under the Chairmanship

* For this purpose marks were assigned to each school on the following basis:—

Item.	Maximum Marks.
(i) Range and quality of instruction	40
(ii) Staff and their conditions of service	15
(iii) Accommodation	10
(iv) School records	10
(v) Personal cleanliness and discipline of pupils	10
(vi) Proportion of the pupils in the higher classes	8
(vii) Prompt and effective supply of returns and statistics	7
Total	100

A school which scored 70 marks or more is given full grants. In other cases, the grants are reduced pro-rata.

** D. M. Desai: Universal, Compulsory and Free Primary Education in India, pp. 18, 21.

† Ibid, p. 36.

‡ Ibid, pp. 39, 40.

§ Ibid, p. 40.

of the Municipal Commissioner, but it came to the conclusion that the time was not then ripe to adopt the reform.* Thus all the early attempts to introduce compulsory education were unsuccessful; but they kept the concept alive and helped materially in creating a favourable public opinion for the purpose.

Between 1910 and 1912, Gokhale made herculean efforts to introduce compulsory education in India and moved a bill for the purpose in the Central Legislature. Owing to opposition from Government, it failed by 33 votes against 13. But in spite of this failure, it awakened public opinion on the subject and paved the grounds for a successful effort.

The credit for sponsoring the first compulsory legislation, not only in this State, but in India as a whole goes, therefore, to Vithalbhai Patel whose bill on the subject became the Bombay Primary Education (District Municipalities) Act, 1918. This is known popularly as the Patel Act and was the first law to be passed on the subject of compulsory education in the whole of India.† Its principal provisions were as follows:—

(a) The Act was applicable only to urban areas excluding the City of Bombay;

(b) A Municipality could launch a scheme of compulsory education for either or both sexes within the area of its jurisdiction, provided that (i) such decision was supported by two-thirds of the Councillors present at the meeting and by half of the total number of Municipal Councillors and (ii) was approved by Government;

(c) Government had to be satisfied regarding adequate provision of schools, teachers, equipment, etc., before any scheme of compulsory education could be sanctioned.

(d) The age period of compulsion was from 6 to 11 years of age;

(e) The parent of every child residing within the area of compulsion was called upon to cause his child to attend a recognised primary school. If he failed to do so, he was to be prosecuted and, on conviction, was liable to a fine of not more than five rupees;

(f) A fine of not more than Rs. 25 was prescribed for persons employing children of compulsory age;

(g) Compulsory education must also be free;

(h) To meet the rise in expenditure on account of the introduction of compulsion, Municipalities were empowered to impose fresh taxes or to increase any of the existing ones; and

(i) It was not obligatory on Government to aid schemes of compulsion submitted to it. But if Government decided to share the cost with the Municipality, its grant-in-aid was to be at such percentage of the total expenditure as may be prescribed.

In spite of the great enthusiasm generated by the Act, only six Municipalities introduced compulsory education under it—Surat (1919), Bandra (1920), Satara City (1921), Dhulia (1923), Byadgi and Dakore; but the

* D. M. Desai: Universal, Compulsory and Free Primary Education in India, pp. 40-47.

† Ibid, pp. 104-111.

compulsion in the last two areas was soon withdrawn. This poor response was due mainly to the uninviting financial provisions of the Patel Act. It was, therefore, repeated and replaced by the Bombay Primary Education Act, 1923.

In so far as compulsory education is concerned, the provisions of the Bombay Primary Education Act of 1923 were as follows:—

(a) The Patel Act applied to urban areas only. The Primary Education Act of 1923, on the other hand, applied both to urban and rural areas.

(b) Following the Patel Act, the Primary Education Act of 1923 left the initiative in the matter of introducing compulsion to the local bodies. But it also went a good deal further. Under the Patel Act, the Municipalities alone could put forward a proposal to introduce compulsion. If it failed to do so, no other power could force it to introduce compulsion. The Primary Education Act of 1923 altered this position fundamentally. Section 10 (2) of the Act authorised Government to call upon local bodies to prepare schemes of compulsion within a specified period if they failed to take initiative in the matter. Moreover, Section 26 of the Act gave Government power to prepare or execute schemes of compulsion through its own officers if the local authorities failed to comply with an order under Section 10 (2) and to recover the expenses of the scheme from the local authorities concerned.

(c) The amount of fine for failure to send a child to school was not to exceed two rupees; but for repeated failures, provision was made in the Act for the imposition of a daily fine of annas 8 for every day on which the failure is continued or repeated. Moreover, in view of the application of the Act to rural areas, the authority to try cases under the Act was vested in a Magistrate, or a Revenue or Police Patel, or in any other person empowered by the District Magistrate in this behalf.*

(d) Government also undertook to give financial assistance for all sanctioned schemes of compulsion at 50 per cent., in the case of Municipalities and 66½ per cent. in the case of District Local Boards.

Owing to financial difficulties, however, the progress of compulsory education was not satisfactory even after 1923. Only 11 Authorised Municipalities introduced compulsory education under the Bombay Primary Education Act, 1923, viz., Ahmednagar (1927), Poona (1929 to 1943), Sholapur (1927), Ahmedabad (1948), Broach (1927), Dharwar (1942), Hubli (1941 to 1951), Belgaum (1947), Bijapur (1944 to 1947), Malegaon (1948) and Jalgaon (1947). The West Khandesh District Board introduced compulsory education for boys only in all villages with a population of 1,000 and over (1929). Among the other districts, Satara introduced it in 24 villages (1946—boys and girls); East Khandesh in 97 villages (1946—boys only); Surat in 34 villages (1946—boys and girls); Belgaum in 16 villages (1946—boys and girls); Sholapur in 19 villages (1946—boys and girls); and Ratnagiri in 16 villages (1938-46—boys and girls). The Dhar-

* When village Panchayats were given judicial powers, they were also authorised to try cases under the Primary Education Acts.

war District introduced compulsion in the non-Local Authority Municipalities of Byadgi, Haveri, and Ranebennur (1943—boys and girls); and the Broach District introduced it in all villages with a population of 500 and over (1944—boys and girls). The progress of Compulsory Primary Education was, therefore, not very satisfactory especially in rural areas.

Besides, compulsory education was not properly enforced even in the few areas where it had been introduced and no intensive efforts were made to bring all children of school-going age under effective instruction. Very little was done beyond holding of periodical censuses of the children of school-going age, and even these were not always thorough. In several cases, notices were issued to parents to send their children to schools, but very few attendance orders were passed. The number of prosecutions started was very small and the amount of fines realised was almost negligible. All things considered, therefore, it may be said that, even in 1945-46, Compulsory Primary Education was introduced in a very small part of the State and that, even in the few areas where it was introduced, its enforcement was so weak and desultory that compulsion existed more on paper than in fact.

When the Popular Ministry came into power again in 1946, the problem of compulsory education was taken up in right earnest. In order to reduce the cost of compulsory education, the duration of the Junior Primary Course was reduced to four years instead of five and the duration of the age-period of compulsion was reduced to four years (i. e. 7-11) from five years (i.e. 6-11). Moreover, the shift-system was adopted in Standards I and II. Government further announced that Universal Compulsory and Free Primary Education of four years' duration would be introduced in the State as a whole in a period of 10 to 12 years. As a first step towards the achievement of this objective, Government advised the District Local Boards to introduce compulsion, both for boys and girls, in all villages with a population of 1,000 and over during a period of 5 years beginning with effect from June, 1947, by age groups as shown below:—

	Age group.	
First year	...	7-8
Second year	...	7-9
Third year	...	7-10
Fourth year	...	7-11

This decision was naturally adopted in the 19 districts of the old Bombay Province only. Owing to the merger of the old Indian States, 8 new districts were formed in 1949-50 and the above principle was extended to them also with effect from 1953-54. Besides, in the Umbargaon, Dahanu and Mokhada Talukas of the Thana District, compulsory education was introduced even in small villages with a population of less than 1,000 with a view to benefiting the Adivasi population that forms a large percentage of the total population in this area.

The Bombay Primary Education Act, 1947, did not introduce any radical changes in so far as Compulsory Primary Education was concerned. It,

however, simplified the procedure for the preparation of a scheme of compulsory education in rural areas, in view of the fact that the entire burden of financing such schemes was assumed directly by Government. Under the new procedure, the responsibility for the preparation of a scheme of compulsory education was placed upon the Administrative Officer and *not* upon the District School Board. Provision, however, was made for the views and comments of the District School Boards to be necessarily taken into account and forwarded to Government.

It is not only in the introduction of compulsory education that progress has been made since 1946. The practical *enforcement* of compulsory education also has been made more efficient than in the past. When the scheme was started in 1947-48, the traditional methods of enforcement were naturally adopted to begin with and a large number of special attendance officers were appointed. But experience showed that this type of a special machinery did not serve a useful purpose. Therefore, the posts of attendance officers were abolished and the work of enforcing compulsion was made an integral part of the duties of the ordinary staff of the Education Department. In other words, the various duties connected with the enforcement of Compulsory Primary Education were distributed between primary teachers, headmasters of primary schools and Assistant Deputy Educational Inspectors. The practical experience of this reform is encouraging and it is found that this arrangement is both economical and efficient. Secondly, steps have also been taken to create a better machinery for the trial of offences under Primary Education Act. For this purpose, the Bombay Primary Education Act, 1947, has been amended and it is now laid down that a case under this Act shall be tried in the area where the parent resides, either by a Judicial Magistrate if one holds his Court there, or by a *Nyaya* Panchayat if one is constituted for the locality. If both these agencies are not available, a special Primary School Panchayat consisting of three persons appointed by Government shall be constituted for the village to try cases under this Act. Similarly, certain other technical difficulties which used to hamper the effective prosecution of defaulters have also been remedied. It is hoped that these amendments would help materially in improving the machinery for the enforcement of compulsory education.

3 (12). *Primary Education in the City of Bombay.*—The island of Bombay came under the East India Company as early as in 1668. But, like all other parts of the State, its needs in Primary Education were exclusively provided by the indigenous schools till 1824 when the Bombay Native Education Society opened two primary schools of the modern type, one for Marathi and the other for Gujarati children. This Society and, later on, the Board of Education continued to provide Primary Education for the City till 1855 when the number of schools stood at 6 with an enrolment of 560 and a total expenditure of Rs. 3,912. These schools were then taken over by the Department which remained in exclusive control of Primary Education in the City till 1886-87, when the total number of primary schools increased to 142 with an enrolment of 14,493 pupils and an expenditure of Rs. 1,26,982.

Although the beginnings of Municipal administration in the City of Bombay are very old and go back to the year 1792, the Municipal authorities in the City had nothing to do with the provision of Primary Education until 1872 when they were authorised to contribute to the expenditure of the primary schools maintained within the limits of the City by the Department. Accordingly an annual grant of Rs. 10,000 was sanctioned in 1872-73. It was increased to Rs. 15,000 in 1877-78 and later a further grant of Rs. 5,000 was also sanctioned. But between 1872 and 1887, the Municipal authorities had no control over the administration of Primary Education in the City and their sole duty in this respect was restricted to the sanctioning of this small annual grant.

The Municipal Act of 1888, however, made a revolutionary change in this position. It laid down the general principle that Primary Education in the City was a "joint responsibility" of Government and the Municipality and created a Joint Schools Committee of eight members of whom four were appointed by Government and four by the Municipality. The supervision and control of Primary Education in the City was vested in this Committee and the funds required for Primary Education were also jointly provided, it being laid down that the contribution of the Municipality, when added to the amount of fees collected, should not be less than double the amount from Government for the year. This joint management continued till 1907 when the Police Charges Act was passed. Under its provisions, the Municipality was exempted from the payment of contribution towards the maintenance of the Police in the City and, in return, was made to accept the entire responsibility for financing Primary Education. Accordingly, the Government grant for primary schools in the City of Bombay was discontinued in 1907-08.

This major financial change also necessitated a number of consequential changes in the administration of Primary Education in the City. To begin with, Government ceased to appoint any members to the Schools Committee which in consequence, came to be exclusively elected by the Municipality itself.* Secondly, the old inspecting and teaching staff consisting of Government servants was continued provisionally under the new Schools Committee on foreign service conditions till 1914 when the inspecting staff reverted to Government service and the Municipality was authorised to appoint its own officers instead. As regards the teaching staff, persons appointed before 1914 were treated as Government servants lent to the Municipality, but all teachers appointed after 1914 were regarded as Municipal servants. Thirdly, the aided schools were also gradually transferred to the entire control of the Municipality and, in 1922, a new post of the Superintendent of Aided Schools was created under the Municipality. Thus the Municipality came to have full authority over the administration of Primary Education in the City and also assumed the entire financial responsibility for its provision. It is true that the primary schools in the City were subject to inspection by the officers of the Department. But their role was

* In 1916, the total number of members of the Schools Committee was increased to 12. In 1920, the number was again increased to 16 of whom 12 were to be Councillors [and the remaining of whom two were to be women were to be non-Councillors] but residents of the City.

mainly advisory and they had nothing to do with the details of the administration. The position thus created between 1907 and 1922 continues to be fundamentally unaltered to this date, although Government grants for Primary Education have since been renewed.

The following table shows growth of Primary Education in the City between 1887-88 and 1924-25:—

TABLE NO. 3 (9)

Primary Education in the City of Bombay (1887-1925)

Year.	No. of Schools.	No. of Pupils.	Expenditure from				Total Expenditure.
			Government Funds.	Municipal Funds.	Fees.	Other Sources.	
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
			Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
1887-88	136	14,354	29,585	30,483	45,143	36,836	1,42,047
1891-92	146	14,779	31,250	50,973	45,518	40,311	1,68,052
1896-97	169	15,186	42,536	61,156	37,570	64,102	2,05,364
1901-02	194	18,980	43,789	74,539	64,023	85,815	2,68,166
1906-07	219	22,573	81,790	1,34,904	69,371	1,03,570	3,89,635
1911-12	279	32,405	8,022	3,37,485	78,718	1,51,863	5,76,088
1916-17	346	41,326	5,222	5,02,302	1,30,694	1,88,252	8,26,470
1921-22	402	49,596	3,97,892	13,53,625	1,67,088	2,66,975	21,85,580
1924-25	437	52,599	4,45,833	17,96,355	1,88,477	3,64,025	27,94,690

N.B.—The small contribution from Government funds shown against the years 1911-12 and 1916-17 was on account of some aided schools which continued to receive direct financial assistance from Government. The increase in the contribution of Government seen against the years 1921-22 and 1924-25 was due to a change of policy which will be described in the following paragraph.

It was stated earlier in Section 11 that a demand for the introduction of Compulsory Primary Education in the City of Bombay was put forward as early as in 1906. Although this attempt did not succeed, efforts in that direction continued to be made by public leaders of the City. In July, 1916, therefore, the Corporation called for proposals for extension and improvement of Primary Education with the ultimate object of introducing Free and Compulsory Primary Education. Accordingly a scheme spread over ten years was prepared. It was estimated that this scheme would bring 23,000 additional pupils into schools between 1918-1919 and 1928-29 at an additional cost of Rs. 18,00,000 (over and above the expenditure of about Rs. 6,00,000 which was being incurred by the Corporation from its own funds). As it was not possible for the Corporation to meet this additional liability, it approached Government for a grant-in-aid, especially because it was laid down in the Police Charges Act of 1907 that, if "by or at the instance of Government, education be made free and compulsory in the City, Government was to pay a grant of one-third of the additional expenditure incurred therefor and also that the Corporation was to benefit by a change of policy, if any, to the same extent as other City Municipalities

in regard to increase in expenditure involved in the adoption of that policy."* This request was granted by Government and it was laid down that "the Corporation should continue to bear the whole of the cost of primary education up to the limit of the net budgeted expenditure during the year 1917-18 (i. e. Rs. 6 lakhs) and that all additional expenditure should be shared equally between Government and the Corporation."† The first Government grant under these orders was paid in 1919-20 and it continued to be paid till 1922-23 when, on account of financial stringency, Government had to reconsider their decision. The total expenditure on the scheme increased by leaps and bounds mainly owing to the increase in population and the cost of living, and the estimates prepared in 1917-18 were greatly exceeded. The Corporation claimed that Government must pay 50 per cent. of the actual increase in expenditure while Government maintained that it was not bound to pay more than 50 per cent. of the *estimated* expenditure as provided in the scheme of 1917-18. The dispute went on for a number of years and, failing an agreement, the Corporation sued the Government in the High Court which ruled that the claim of the Corporation was not enforceable in a Court of Law.‡ In practice, therefore, the Government grant to the Corporation on account of Primary Education assumed the form of a block grant of about Rs. 9 lakhs—i. e. 50 per cent. of the increase in expenditure estimated in 1917-18. The Corporation, however, continued to press for an increase in its grant and the problem was ultimately decided by the Popular Ministry in 1950-51 when it was laid down that the Government grant to the Corporation should be calculated at 25 per cent. of its approved expenditure subject to an upper limit of 25 lakhs.

As stated above, a scheme for the expansion of Primary Education in the City had already been drawn up and introduced in 1918-1919. In 1920 the City of Bombay Primary Education Act was passed and the Corporation was authorised to introduce Free and Compulsory Primary Education in its area subject to certain conditions. Accordingly, compulsory education was introduced in F and G Wards in 1925 and extended to the City as a whole in 1939-40. But hardly were any effective measures taken to enforce compulsory attendance and the scheme remained more or less on paper only. Owing to the increase of population and public awakening, however, the enrolment in primary schools increased rapidly between 1924-25 and 1946-47. Besides, the total expenditure on Primary Education also increased very considerably owing to the rise in the cost of living and the contribution of the Municipality went up in proportion.

* The School Committee's Manual, Third Edition, 1947, p. 3.

† Ibid, p. 224. It must be pointed out that Government sanctioned 50 per cent. of the expenditure as grant-in-aid even though the Corporation had asked for a grant of one-third of the expenditure only.

‡ Ibid, pp. 225-26.

This will be clearly seen from the following table:—

TABLE No. 3 (10)

Primary Education in the City of Bombay (1924-47)

Year.	No. of Schools.	No. of Pupils.	Expenditure from.				Total Expenditure.
			Government Funds.	Municipal Funds.	Fees.	Other Sources.	
			4	5	6	7	8
1	2	3	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
1924-25	437	52,599	4,45,833	17,96,355	1,88,477	3,64,025	27,94,690
1926-27	463	62,923	7,56,745	23,23,544	1,42,599	5,02,727	37,25,615
1931-32	464	76,951	7,44,507	...	1,81,011	26,05,380	35,30,898
1936-37	492	96,611	7,73,167	...	2,99,529	28,04,785	38,77,481
1941-42	613	1,13,098	9,25,100	29,96,559	5,14,539	5,32,266	49,68,464
1946-47	640	1,51,063	9,74,890	60,34,597	15,17,906	5,73,591	91,00,984

N. B.—In 1931-32 and 1936-37 the expenditure from Municipal Funds has not been separately shown in the Departmental Reports and is presumably included in that under 'Other Sources.'

In 1948 the Corporation appointed Shri R. V. Parulekar to examine the problem of the administration of Primary Education in the City and to make recommendations calculated to improve the efficiency of the existing system. Shri Parulekar submitted a very valuable report and made several recommendations most of which have since been accepted by Government and the Corporation. A fundamental recommendation of Shri Parulekar was that the administration of Primary Education, which was hitherto independent of the control of the Municipal Commissioner, should in future be placed under him like the other Departments of the Corporation. This suggestion was accepted by the Corporation and the Government and was given effect to, under the Bombay Municipal Corporation (Amendment) Act, 1950. From January, 1951, therefore, the administration of Primary Education came under the Municipal Commissioner who is assisted by an Education Officer (the post being equivalent to that of the Secretary of the Schools Committee of the earlier period) who is in direct control and management of all activities of primary schools—Municipal and aided. Under the same Act, Government has assumed large powers to give directions to the Corporation regarding subjects, curricula, text-books and standards for teachers and has also been vested with wide powers to control the Establishment Schedule of the Primary Education Department of the Corporation. This major administrative change was accompanied by another equally far reaching reform namely, the merger of the Suburban Areas with the City in order to form "Greater Bombay" (1950). This reform led to a very great increase in the activities of the Primary Education Department and the number of primary schools, pupils, and expenditure consequently showed a sudden increase. Government also decided to give a fixed grant of Rs. 5,50,000 to the Corporation on account of the Suburban primary schools taken over by it. The combined effect of these two major changes is seen in the following table which shows the progress of Primary Education in Greater Bombay between 1946-47 and 1954-55:—

TABLE No. 3 (11)

Primary Education in Greater Bombay (1947-55)

Year.	No. of Schools.	No. of Pupils.	Expenditure from.				
			Government Funds.	Municipal Funds.	Fees.	Other Sources.	Total expenditure.
			Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
1946-47	640	1,51,063	9,74,890	60,34,597	15,17,906	5,73,591	91,00,984
1951-52	772	2,40,488	24,60,000	103,93,065	34,86,687	4,67,710	168,07,462
1953-54	810	2,61,008	32,57,550	99,77,452	37,89,138	3,00,715	173,24,855
1954-55	840	2,72,001	30,50,000	93,04,134	42,21,996	4,08,695	169,84,825

It will thus be seen that Primary Education in the City and Suburbs has made tremendous progress during the last hundred years. In 1854-55, there were only six primary schools with an enrolment of 560 pupils* which were conducted at a total cost of Rs. 3,912 only. In 1954-55, there were 840 primary schools with an enrolment of 2,72,001 pupils and a total expenditure of Rs. 1,69,84,825. In spite of this increase, a very large number of children is still reported to be non-attending. The Corporation is making more strenuous efforts to enforce compulsory attendance and it is estimated that the existing expenditure on Primary Education, large as it already is, will have to be increased very considerably if all the children of school-going age are to be brought under instruction.

Primary Education in the City of Bombay has several distinctive features. To begin with, the Bombay Corporation offers the best remuneration in the State to its primary teachers so that its teaching staff is much better qualified than that under any other Local Authority in the State. The following table shows the scales of pay of Municipal teachers during the last forty years:—

TABLE No. 3 (12)

Salaries of Municipal teachers

		Prior to 1930.	1930 to 1946.	After 1946.
		Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
Unqualified	...	30- 1- 45	30-1-40	50- 3-100
Qualified but untrained	...	55-1½- 85	35-1-55	50- 3-125
Ist year trained	...	55- 2- 95	50-1-60-2-70	60- 5-175
IInd year trained	...	60- 3-120	60-2-100-3-130	70- 5-175
IIIrd year trained	...	70- 4-150	70-3-130	80- 5-175
Matric/S. S. C.	60- 3-125
Trained graduates	...	125- 5-175	75-5-150	100-10-200

* The statistics of indigenous schools are not available.

Mainly owing to these scales of pay, the cost per pupil is very high in Bombay. In 1901-02, the average cost per pupil in all the schools of the City was Rs. 12-14-6 for boys and Rs. 15-9-5 for girls. In 1921-22, it rose to Rs. 43-9-0 for boys and Rs. 48-5-0 for girls. In 1946-47, it rose still higher to Rs. 53-12-0 for boys and Rs. 62-3-0 for girls. In 1954-55, it stood at Rs. 71.7 in City area and Rs. 56.2 in Suburban areas. This cost is much higher than that under any other Municipality to say nothing of the mofussil areas.

Besides, the City of Bombay has often given a lead to the development of Primary Education in the State as a whole. Reference has already been made to the fact that the movement for Compulsory Primary Education was first started in the City of Bombay and that it was mainly due to the pressure of public opinion in Bombay that the Patel Act was passed in 1918. It is also on record that the Bombay Municipality was the first Local Authority in the State to abolish all special schools and classes for the scheduled caste and to throw open all its primary schools to every child, irrespective of his community (1926-27). Similarly, the Bombay Municipality was also the first Local Authority to adopt co-education in its primary schools as a general policy and to-day it employed a proportionally larger number of women teachers than any other Local Authority.

Even more important is the scheme of medical inspection and treatment which is being organised by the Corporation since 1914. Under this scheme, children are regularly examined and receive free and prompt medical aid at the Municipal dispensaries or at the Special School Clinic at the K. E. M. Hospital. Pupils with communicable diseases are promptly detected and prevented from attending the school during the period of infectivity. Children are also vaccinated and inoculated periodically after obtaining the consent of their parents. Ailing children are visited at their homes by the School Health Nurses and guidance is given to their parents regarding their care and diet. Health talks on subjects of personal hygiene are also given in the school by the School Health Officers and Nurses in order to inculcate healthy habits. In short, every care is taken to provide good medical advice and treatment to school children. In 1954-55, about 8,000 children received free medical treatment, 129 surgical operations for tonsils and other ailments were performed, 200 cases of dental defects were treated and 75 children were supplied with spectacles, free of charge.

As a compliment to this medical treatment, the Corporation also supplies free milk and snacks to under-nourished children. In 1955, as many as 44,880 school children were supplied with 8 ozs. of pasteurised milk each on every school day. Besides, selected under-nourished children were given 1 oz. of *Chikki* (i. e. ground-nut or til-seed toffee with gram and jaggery, hygienically prepared and rapped in clean white butter paper) for 4 days in a week and fruits (*Chikku* or Oranges) on the remaining two days. The total expenditure incurred on medical inspection and milk scheme was about Rs. 1,05,475 and Rs. 8,27,761 respectively while Rs. 4 lakhs were ear-marked for the supply of snacks.

The Corporation has recently decided to establish a Research Section in Primary Education and it is hoped that this would be of great use, not only to the Corporation, but to the administration of Primary Education in the State as a whole.

A major difficulty in the development of Primary Education in Greater Bombay is the lack of suitable school buildings. A very large number of primary schools in the City is being held in rented buildings which have been constructed primarily as residential quarters. Consequently, a large amount is spent every year on the payment of rents, and the small size of the average class-room necessitates the employment of a much larger staff and leads to great indirect financial loss. It is, therefore, absolutely essential to provide good buildings for the Municipal schools as early as possible. For this purpose, the Corporation has undertaken an ambitious programme under which about Rs. 25 lakhs are proposed to be spent every year on the construction of school buildings. During the last three years, 9 new school buildings were constructed and 11 existing school buildings were extended. There is still a long way to go; but a good beginning in the direction has now been made.

Finally, it may be stated that with the large resources which the Corporation has brought to bear on the problem and the efficient personnel which it is able to secure, Primary Education in the City is being conducted on a fairly high level of efficiency. Compulsory Physical Education, vocational schools which provide instruction in crafts like carpentry, tailoring, clock-repairing, sign-board painting; a large-scale organisation of Boy Scouts and Girl Guides, and a programme of rich and varied extra-curricular activities—these are some of the prominent features of the primary schools in Greater Bombay.

3 (13). *Fees*.—Prior to 1855, fees were not regarded as a source of revenue for financing Primary Education. The fees charged were small, and it was only in the City of Bombay that they were credited to the general fund. In other places, half the fees collected were given to the teachers, provided the annual examination result was satisfactory, and the remainder was disposed of in repairing school-buildings, in providing books for school libraries or in some other suitable manner.*

The Educational Despatch of 1854 changed the attitude towards fees. It laid down that some fee, however low, must be charged in all schools because an entirely gratuitous instruction is valued for less by those who receive it than one for which some payment, however small, is made; that such payment induces a more regular attendance and greater exertion on the part of pupils, and that school fees themselves, however insignificant they might be in each individual case, would, in the aggregate, become of considerable importance when applied to the support of a better class of teachers.† Consequently, fees came to be regarded as a small but significant source of revenue for the financing of Primary Education.

* Report of the Board of Education, 1855, p. 194.

† Para. 54.

As stated earlier, the desire for Primary Education was spreading rapidly between 1855 and 1901 so that the Department was always in need of funds to expand or improve Primary Education. The income from fees was therefore, always a welcome addition to the scanty resources placed at the disposal of the Department and, consequently, the levy of small fees became a regular feature of primary schools in the latter half of the nineteenth century. It must also be pointed out that this levy did not create any practical difficulties and that it did not adversely affect the educational advance of any class. This was due to several reasons. In the first place, the rate at which fees were levied was very low, even lower than that in the indigenous schools. Secondly, the desire for education was still restricted to the upper and the middle classes of society so that the poor were kept out, not because of the fees but because they had not yet learnt to appreciate the value of education. Thirdly numerous concessions in fees were generally available. Those who paid the local fund cess (and they formed a large group of the rural population) were charged fees at half the usual rate because the primary schools themselves were supported by the cess; girls and the pupils of the backward classes were generally admitted free, and Muslim children also had several concessions. It would, therefore, be correct to say that the levy of fees in the primary schools of this period did not prejudicially affect the spread of Primary Education. On the other hand, fees contributed about 10 per cent. of the total direct expenditure on Education and hence they may even be held to have advanced the spread of Primary Education by enabling Government to conduct more schools and to appoint more teachers.

By the opening of the present century, however, the situation had altered materially. The poorer classes were now being attracted to the schools and, even when they were not, the intelligentsia claimed that compulsory education should be introduced without delay. The public demanded that Primary Education should be free as well as compulsory; but if that was not possible the alternative demand was that Primary Education should at least be free. Government of India, however, refused to yield to all the agitation that was organised on the subject in this State as well as at the all India level and the Government Resolution of 1913 said:

“As regards free elementary education, the time has not yet arrived when it is practicable to dispense wholly with fees without injustice to the many villages which are waiting for the provision of schools. The fees derived from those pupils who can pay them are now devoted to the maintenance and expansion of primary education, and a total remission of fees would involve to a certain extent a more prolonged postponement of a provision of schools in villages without them. In some provinces, elementary education is already free and in the majority of provinces liberal provision is already made for giving free elementary instruction to those boys whose parents cannot afford to pay fees. Local Governments have been requested to extend the application of the principle of free elementary education amongst the poorer and more backward sections of the population. Further than this, it is not possible at present to go.”*

* Para. 10.

The policy laid down in this Resolution has been acted upon in this State even to this day. Government has always held the view that compulsory education must necessarily be free. But in so far as voluntary education is concerned, Government feels that, as a rule, small fees should be charged in all primary schools and that the regulations for the remission of fees should be so liberal that no pupil would be prevented from receiving education merely because he is not in a position to pay the fees prescribed. In the present financial conditions of the country, such a procedure has a double advantage over the slogan of ‘free education.’ On the one hand, it does not impede the education of the really poor child and on the other, it collects a small but very significant sum of money from those who can afford to pay and thereby assists in the still further development of Primary Education.

It was on the basis of this doctrine that Government has always refused to make Primary Education wholly free. Under Dyarchy considerable pressure was brought upon Government for making primary schools free. But Government merely decided to extend concession in fees.* As a further compromise the Municipalities were permitted to introduce Free Primary Education provided they could find additional resources to meet the loss of revenue caused by the remission of fees.† Even after 1937, the same policy has been continued by the Popular Ministry.

Since the present policy is to introduce compulsory education at the primary stage only, Government decided to charge fees at a slightly higher rate at the upper primary stage and thereby secure some additional funds for the support of Primary Education. Accordingly, fees at the rate of Re. 0-8-0 in Standard V, of Re. 0-12-0 in Standard VI and Re. 1-0-0 in Standard VII were levied in all primary schools with effect from 1954-55.‡ The usual concessions allowed under the Primary Education rules continued here also. Moreover, orders have been issued to the effect that every parent who is unable to pay the fees shall be granted an exemption for his children. Besides orders have also been issued to the effect that Authorised Municipalities may remit fees; but if they do

*The exact orders on the subject are quoted below:—

The following shall be exempted from the payment of fees in primary schools managed by a local authority:—

- (a) All girls;
- (b) Boys of the scheduled classes, aboriginal and hill tribes and other backward classes;
- (c) Boys whose parents satisfy the School Board that they are unable to pay the school fees;
- (d) The sons of Indian soldiers and followers who have died or been incapacitated while on active service in the War.
- (e) The sons of Indian soldiers in the combatant branches of the army;
- (f) The sons of women teachers whose pay is Rs. 100 or less.

The powers of the School Board in respect to (c) may be delegated by the School Board to the local School Committee.

† Upto 1937, sixty Municipalities had made use of this authority and made Primary Education free in their areas.

‡ These rates have been prescribed for rural areas. In the urban areas, the rates prescribed were Re. 1-0-0 for Standard V; Rs. 1-4-0 for Standard VI and Rs. 1-8-0 for Standard VII.

so, Government grant to them would be reduced by an amount equivalent to what might have been realised from fees if they had been charged at the prescribed rates.* Consequently, no child can be prevented from pursuing his studies because of inability to pay fees—a conclusion which has been fully justified by the statistics of enrolment. On the other hand, the revenue from fees has gone up by about Rs. 19 lakhs in the very first year. This is no small amount and the State can ill afford to forgo it.

The following table shows some details about the annual fee per pupil as well as the percentage of the total direct expenditure on Primary Education that is borne by fees.

TABLE NO. 3 (13)
Fees in Primary Schools (1881-1955)

Year.	Average Annual Fee per Pupil.	Percentage of the total direct Expenditure on Primary Education that is borne by Fees.	Total amount of Fees realised.
	Rs. a. p.		Rs.
1881-82	0- 7- 5	10.9	1,54,496
1891-92	0-10-11	12.7	3,53,664
1901-02	0-11- 7	10.6	3,71,071
1911-12	0- 9- 9	7.9	4,60,179
1921-22	0-10- 4	3.5	5,17,381
1936-37	0- 9- 8	3.9	6,86,873
1941-42	0- 9- 8	4.3	9,61,932
1946-47	1- 7- 3	5.4	24,17,812
1951-52	1- 7- 6	4.9	51,13,638
1953-54	1-10- 7	5.3	58,99,705
1954-55	2- 0- 5	6.7	77,73,206

3 (14). *Pay of Primary Teachers.*—In the indigenous elementary schools the remuneration of the teachers was very low, and varied between Rs. 3 to Rs. 5 per month. When the new type of primary schools was organised by the B. N. E. Society and the Board of Education between 1826 and 1855, the need to appoint teachers who were specially trained and whose academic attainments were much higher than those of the teachers in the indigenous elementary schools led to an improvement in their remuneration. The teachers of this period received salaries varying between Rs. 10 to Rs. 50 and also a share of the fee realised—the exact salary depending upon the size and importance of the school and the share in the fees, on the quality of the work turned out. This position continued unaltered for a few years even after the creation of the Department.

(b) *Pay-scales (1865-1901).*—A major change of policy, however, occurred when the local fund cess was levied and the desire to expand Primary Education very rapidly was awakened. The curriculum of primary schools was now simplified and brought much closer to that of the indigenous schools, especially in the lower standards.* The need to appoint specially trained and highly qualified teachers to primary schools, was, therefore, not so urgent as in the past. Consequently, teachers with meagre general education (consisting of 3 to 5 years of study in a primary school) and no training, began to be appointed to primary schools and with this fall in the standards, their remuneration was also deteriorated. Untrained primary teachers were now paid low salaries that varied between Rs. 4 and Rs. 8 per month. Trained teachers were paid a little better—from Rs. 8 to Rs. 25—and headmasters were entitled, in addition, to a capitation allowance based on attendance and a proficiency allowance based on the results of the examination. But in spite of all these rules the general remuneration of a primary teacher was very low. Even in 1882, the average salary of a teacher was anything between 8 to 9 rupees a month and of the nine thousand odd teachers then employed, only 4 per cent. were in receipt of more than Rs. 25.†

There was very little change in this position till 1901-02; by the turn of the century, both the advantages as well as disadvantages of the system became fairly obvious. The main advantages were to (1) the possibility of expanding Elementary Primary Education on a comparatively large scale within the meagre budgetary allotment then available, and (2) the chance afforded to trained and deserving head-masters to earn a much larger remuneration than the one to which they were entitled merely on the basis of their training. However, the disadvantages of the system were even greater. It led to great disparities between one teacher and another and left large room for administrative favouritism. Besides, the remuneration of teachers was often made to depend on factors over which they had no control, viz., the uneven character of village schools and irregularity of attendance due to natural calamities like an epidemic or famine.

(c) *Pay-scales (1901-21).*—This system was, therefore, abandoned at the opening of this century, thanks to the lead given by Curzon, and a system of *fixed grades* was introduced. Under this plan, every post in the primary schools carried a fixed grade (i. e. monthly salary) depending upon the size and importance of the school concerned. Promotion from one grade to another was given as vacancies occurred, on the basis of training and satisfactory work, and teachers were also transferred to posts of lower grade as a punishment. The grades ranged from the minimum pay of Rs. 4 to the maximum of Rs. 60 with a number of intermediate grades. They were fixed once for all and were not altered unless the status of the school was changed materially. The teachers could, therefore, hope to improve their remuneration only when the grade of the post was revised—which was an unusual event—or when a vacancy in the higher grade occurred.

* See Section 3 (16) for details.

† Report of the Moos-Paranjpe Committee, p. 4.

In the drive for educational reconstruction organised by Curzon a high priority was accorded to the improvement of the pay-scales of primary teachers. The same objective was also stressed by the Government Resolution on Educational Policy, 1913. Intensive efforts were, therefore, made between 1901 and 1921, to give better wage to the primary teacher. Between 1903 and 1915, the minimum salaries of untrained assistants and headmasters were raised from time to time and attempts were made to give "Code" pay to all trained teachers.* Incremental scales of pay were introduced for the first time in 1919.† Besides, owing to the increase in the cost of living which had occurred during the First World War, war allowances were sanctioned in addition to pay. In 1920, the minimum salaries of teachers were raised still further although the scales were not altered. As a result of all these changes, there was a great improvement in the remuneration of primary teachers as will be seen in the following table:—

TABLE No. 3 (14)
Average pay of primary teachers (1907-22)

Year.	Average pay	No. of teachers.
	Rs.	
1907	11.0	12,049
1911	13.4	14,159
1917	14.8	17,967
1922	33.0	20,353

(d) *Pay-scales (1921-39).*—The following period again witnessed a deterioration in the position, due mainly to the world economic depression and the consequent financial stringency. A revised incremental scale, known popularly as the "560" scale because it was sanctioned under Government Resolution, Education Department, No. 560 of 10-3-1924, was introduced in 1923 and allowances based on attendance were given to headmasters. These varied from Rs. 3 to Rs. 20 per month. In 1925, the allowances of headmasters were increased and new allowances were sanctioned to first assistants.

Between 1929 and 1937, when the effects of the world economic depression were actually felt, the pay-scales of the primary teachers were often revised and, on each occasion, their remuneration was lowered with the object of curtailing expenditure. The first revision was made in 1929 when Government Resolution, Education Department, No. S. 72 of 12-7-1929

* The Code for primary training colleges mentioned the minimum pay to which each trained teacher was entitled—the pay varied with the year of training—and this was called the 'Code' pay. There was generally no co-ordination between the 'grades' fixed for the schools and the output of trained teachers and consequently several trained teachers received a grade which was lower than their Code pay. This discrepancy was removed under this reform.

† These varied from Rs. 15 to Rs. 40 for the first year trained, from Rs. 20 to Rs. 25 for the second year trained and from Rs. 25 to Rs. 75 for the third year trained teachers.

introduced what are popularly known as "S-72" scales. These were generally lower than the '560' scales sanctioned earlier. In 1935, a still lower scale was sanctioned under Government Resolution, Education Department, No. 5448 of 25-2-1935. Besides, the allowances given to head masters and first assistants were also discontinued. In 1930, Government gave an option to the local authorities to discontinue the payment of the headmasters' and first assistants' allowances and out of the 38 local Authorities in the State 14 availed themselves of this option. The cut in Government grants imposed between 1932-38 induced several Local Authorities to retrench these allowances partially or wholly as a temporary measure. In October, 1938, Government ordered that the amounts spent on allowances after 1st March, 1939 would not be admitted for purposes of grant. This amounted to an order for the discontinuance of the allowances as a permanent measure and they led not only to a reduction in the emoluments of the teachers, but also affected the pension prospects of the teachers who were in receipt of those allowances. As a result of all these changes, the average monthly pay of primary teachers fell from Rs. 33 in 1922 to Rs. 31.1 in 1938.

(e) *Pay-scales (1939-55).*—During the last sixteen years, however, the wheels have turned full circle and the remuneration of primary teachers has improved. The scales were revised in 1941, 1946 and 1947 and on each occasion, to the benefit of the teacher. Besides, the multiplicity of incremental scales that had come into existence in the earlier period was done away with, and only two common incremental scales—one for untrained teachers and the other for trained teachers—were adopted.

By 1939, a large number of anomalies had crept into the pay-structure of primary teachers owing to constant revisions and hence Government appointed a special Committee to inquire into the problem. The report of this Committee known as the Moos-Paranjpe Committee, made several recommendations for the removal of the anomalies and these were accepted by Government.

The More Committee had recommended that all primary teachers should be trained in a continuous course of two years and that a common scale of Rs. 25-½-30-2/3-40 S. G. 40-1-50 should be introduced for all teachers. This fundamental principle was also re-emphasised by the Moos-Paranjpe Committee, which, however, recommended the basic scales of Rs. 25-½-30-1-40 S. G. 40-1-55 (the selection grades being restricted to 15 per cent. of the cadre). In 1941, Government accepted this basic scale *without* the selection grades and also passed detailed orders regarding the manner in which teachers drawing the old scales should be brought under the new scheme.

Owing to the Second World War, the cost of living rose enormously. Dearness allowances were, therefore, sanctioned as a provisional measure and in 1945 when the Popular Ministry again came to power the scales of primary teachers were further revised. Under the new scheme, all untrained teachers were given a basic scale of Rs. 25-1-30 and all trained teachers were given the basic scale of Rs. 30-1-50 S. G. 50-2½-75 (S. G. for 15 per cent. of the cadre) with some local allowance in expensive areas. These orders were given effect from 1st August, 1946.

With effect from 1st January, 1947, the salaries were revised still further and fixed as follows:—

Qualified but untrained teachers—Rs. 35-1-40.

Trained teachers.—Rs. 40-1-50-E. B. 1-3/4-65 S.G. 65-2½-90.

(S. G. for 15 per cent. of the cadre).

In addition to this basic scale dearness allowance at the rates sanctioned for Government servants was also given to primary teachers. Local allowances were now discontinued but house rent allowance at prescribed rates was sanctioned for a few areas.

(f) *Old-age Provision (1855-1955)*.—The problem of the old-age provision of the primary teachers is as important as their remuneration. As stated earlier, the primary teachers were admitted to pension in 1868 and pensions were granted to all who, at the time of their retirement, were in receipt of a salary of more than Rs. 10. This position remained unchanged till 1923.

With the overall transfer of control of Primary Education to local bodies under the Bombay Primary Education Act of 1923, the authority to recruit primary teachers was vested in the School Boards. The teachers recruited after 1923, therefore, were regarded as servants of the local bodies concerned and were given the privilege of a provident fund only, but the teachers recruited before 1923 were allowed an option and continued on the pension basis.

It will be seen from foregoing review that the pay-scales of the primary teachers have had a chequered career. They were raised between 1825 and 1865, lowered between 1865 and 1882, maintained at an almost steady level between 1882 and 1901, raised again between 1901 and 1921, lowered a second time between 1921 and 1939 and raised again for the third time between 1939 and 1947. The Popular Ministry has, as stated earlier, tried to do justice to the teachers and has improved their remuneration considerably during the last 16 years so that the Bombay primary teachers are now paid better emoluments than those in most other States in India. Government is anxious to improve the economic condition of the primary teachers still further, but any radical change can only be made when adequate funds become available.

3 (15). *Expenditure*.—In 1854-55, the total Government grant for education was about Rs. 1,31,000. Out of this, the expenditure incurred on Primary Education was as follows:—

	Rs.
(i) Primary Schools in Bombay City	4,610
(ii) Primary Schools in the 1st Division	17,290
(iii) Primary Schools in the 2nd Division	9,172
(iv) Primary Schools in the 3rd Division	10,529
(v) Books supplied to Primary Schools	6,749
(vi) Superintendence	10,371
(vii) Buildings	1,418
(viii) Gratuities to Teachers	3,328
Total	63,467

Besides the above, the fees collected in primary schools during 1854-55 amounted to Rs. 8,635. But as stated earlier, the fee collections were not treated as revenue at this time.

In 1864-65, the total receipts on account of Primary Education increased to Rs. 3,25,705 and were distributed among the different educational divisions as shown in the following table:—

TABLE No. 3 (15)

Receipts on account of Primary Education (1864-65)

Govt. Funds.	Endowments.	Local Cess.	Subscription.	Fees.	Sale of Books.	Other Sources.	Total.
Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
G. D. 50,408	...	1,10,923	3,159	26,512	1,91,002
N. D. 44,888	248	19,750	12,877	11,512	36	821	90,132
S. D. 12,986	...	1,126	9,690	5,225	29,027
Sind 5,267	...	2,219	7,440	618	15,544
1,13,549	248	1,34,018	33,166	43,867	36	821	3,25,705

[Prepared from table No. 3 of the Government of India pp. (4) to (77) of the Report of the Director of Public Instruction, Bombay, 1864].

Owing to the levy of the local fund cess between 1863 and 1869, the expenditure on Primary Education increased enormously and stood as follows in 1870-71:—

TABLE No. 3 (16)

Expenditure on Primary Education (1870-71)

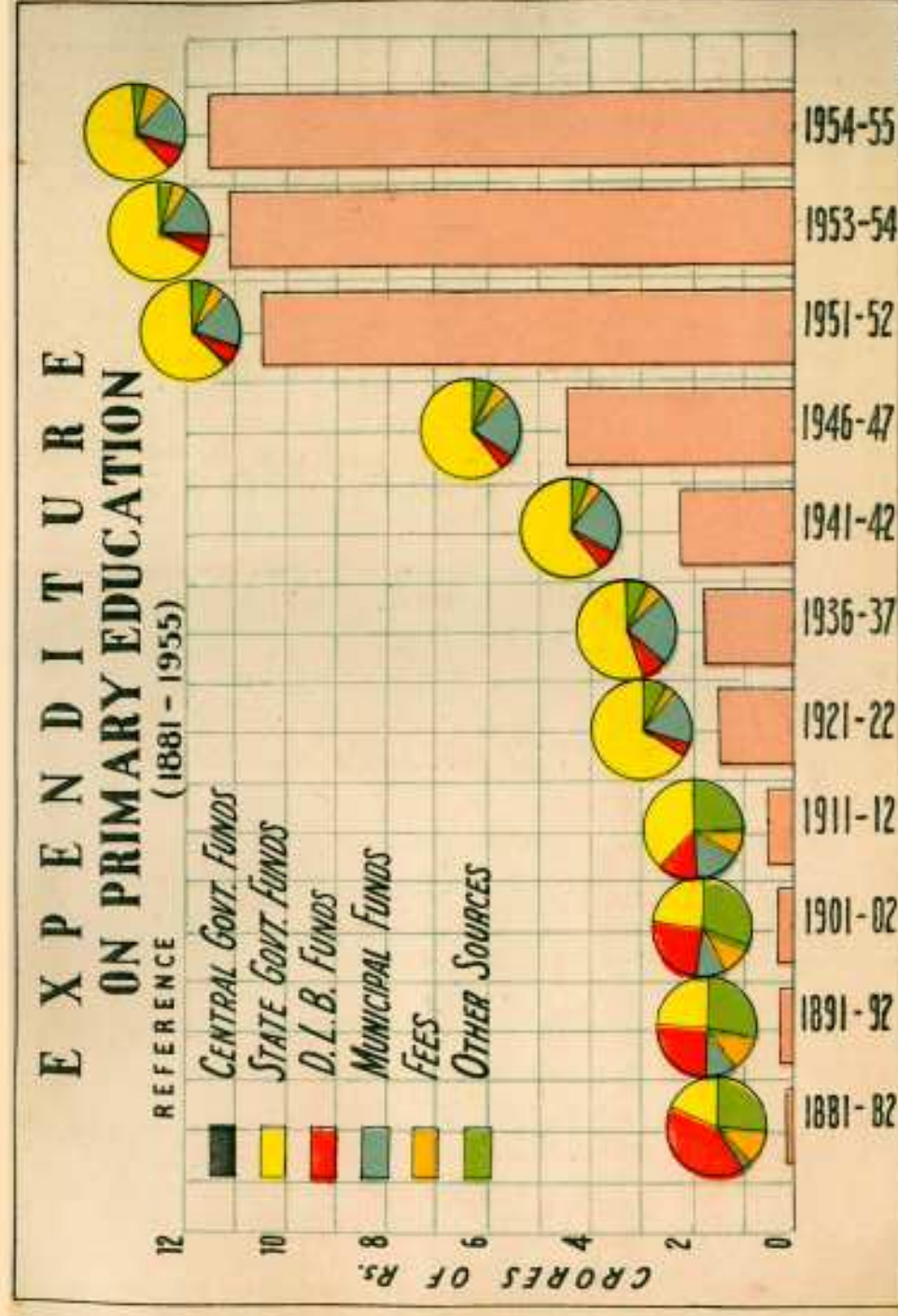
	Imperial or Provincial Expenditure.	Expenditure from Local Cess and Municipal Funds.	Expenditure from Fees.	Expenditure from Other Sources.	Total Expenditure.
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
Boys' & Girls' Schools	2,33,247	5,22,299	29,557	87,280	8,72,383
Training schools for Masters and Mistresses.	37,753	24,539	219	8,526	71,037
Buildings	51,267	1,22,772	414	74,503	2,48,756
Miscellaneous	11,284	13,101	1,315	...	25,700
Total	3,33,551	6,82,711	31,505	1,70,109	12,17,876

(Taken from the Hunter Commission Report, Table No. VII of Primary Education Tables, p. xlvi).

From 1881-82, statistics of *direct* expenditure on Primary Education are available in a comparable form. They are given in the following table:—

TABLE No. 3 (17)
Expenditure on Primary Education (1881-82 to 1954-55)

Year.	Direct Expenditure on Primary Education from.										Total Direct Expenditure on Primary Education (Cols. 8 to 9).	Percentage of total direct Education expenditure on Primary Education (col. 9) to total Education (col. 9).
	Total Direct Expenditure on Education.	Central Government Funds.	State Government Funds.	D. L. B. Funds.	Municipal Funds.	Feet.	Other Sources.	8	9	10		
1	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.		
1881-82	27,14,003	...	2,74,148 (19.3)	5,78,402 (40.8)	36,842 (2.8)	1,54,496 (10.9)	3,72,372 (26.2)	14,19,258 (100.0)	52.3			
1891-02	52,72,435	...	6,54,881 (23.6)	7,30,299 (26.3)	2,88,978 (9.6)	3,33,694 (12.7)	7,75,264 (27.8)	27,83,084 (100.0)	52.8			
1901-02	65,92,193	...	8,29,047 (23.6)	8,27,662 (23.6)	3,49,474 (9.9)	3,71,071 (10.6)	11,32,062 (32.3)	35,09,316 (100.0)	53.2			
1911-12	1,07,60,164	...	22,83,380 (39.3)	7,33,062 (12.6)	8,15,773 (14.1)	4,60,179 (7.9)	15,14,867 (26.1)	58,07,261 (100.0)	53.9			
1921-22	2,48,77,485	...	98,22,378 (39.7)	5,82,012 (3.9)	27,64,964 (18.5)	5,17,381 (3.5)	12,66,112 (8.4)	1,49,52,847 (100.0)	60.1			
1936-37	3,29,19,795	...	97,65,331 (35.1)	12,66,630 (7.1)	45,09,200 (25.4)	6,88,873 (3.9)	15,06,968 (8.5)	1,77,38,502 (100.0)	53.9			
1941-42	4,27,94,809	...	1,23,79,934 (38.7)	11,48,933 (5.2)	54,06,058 (24.7)	9,61,932 (4.3)	15,27,712 (7.1)	2,19,24,569 (100.0)	51.2			
1948-47	8,43,28,068	...	2,78,52,818 (31.2)	22,44,279 (4.9)	1,01,25,456 (22.3)	24,17,812 (5.4)	28,18,367 (6.2)	4,94,53,762 (100.0)	53.9			
1951-52	20,05,45,354	85,751 (0.1)	6,93,54,251 (66.0)	65,48,160 (6.2)	1,81,37,996 (17.2)	51,13,638 (4.9)	58,74,548 (5.6)	10,51,23,942 (100.0)	52.4			
1953-54	21,83,15,143	65,354 (0.0)	7,74,86,310 (69.5)	51,55,404 (4.6)	1,86,05,809 (16.7)	58,99,705 (5.3)	43,04,548 (3.9)	11,15,19,130 (100.0)	51.1			
1954-55	23,10,84,375	50,994 (0.0)	7,53,47,365 (65.2)	93,08,170 (8.1)	1,81,99,234 (15.7)	77,73,206 (6.7)	49,49,212 (4.3)	11,56,28,181 (100.0)	50.0			



Certain trends in the expenditure on Primary Education will become evident from the above table. To begin with, there is the great rise in the total expenditure from about Rs. 63 thousand in 1854-55 to about Rs. 11.6 crores in 1954-55. Most of this rise has taken place since 1901. It will also be seen that the State is now assuming an increasing responsibility for the financing of Primary Education and that its share of the total expenditure has increased from 19.3 per cent. in 1881-82 to 65.2 per cent. in 1954-55. Equally significant is the rise in Municipal contributions from Rs. 39,842 or 2.8 per cent. of the total expenditure in 1881-82 to Rs. 182 lakhs or 15.7 per cent. of the total expenditure in 1954-55. The inelastic nature of the resources of District Local Boards has diminished the significance of their contribution as the total cost of Primary Education has continued to increase. In 1881-82, they contributed only Rs. 5.78 lakhs, but their share of the total expenditure was 40.8 per cent. of the total. In 1954-55, their contribution has actually increased to Rs. 93.1 lakhs but their share of the total cost has fallen to Rs. 8.1 per cent. only. The "other sources" appear in the picture because of the aided schools and, for reasons already explained, they do not play an important role at present; their contribution having fallen from 26.2 per cent. in 1881-82 to 4.3 per cent. in 1954-55.

It will also be seen that Primary Education has always received about half of the total direct expenditure on Education, the actual share varying from 60.1 per cent. in 1921-22 to 50.0 per cent. in 1954-55. It must be pointed out, however, that the recent fall in the share of the total expenditure allotted to Primary Education is mainly due to the larger expenditure that is being now incurred on schemes of Secondary and University Education.

The following table will show the increase in the cost per pupil during the last hundred years:—

TABLE NO. 3 (18)
Cost of Primary Education per Pupil (1855-1955)

Year.	No. of Pupils in Primary Schools.	Total Direct Expenditure on Primary Education.	Cost per Pupil.
		Rs.	Rs.
1881-82	3,32,688	14,19,258	4.3
1891-92	5,18,284	27,83,084	5.4
1901-02	5,13,211	35,09,316	6.8
1911-12	7,57,130	58,07,261	7.7
1921-22	7,98,508	1,49,52,847	18.7
1936-37	11,40,299	1,77,36,502	15.6
1941-42	15,64,620	2,19,24,569	14.0
1946-47	16,65,042	4,54,58,752	27.3
1951-52	34,78,221	10,51,23,942	30.2
1953-54	35,53,750	11,15,19,130	31.4
1954-55	38,30,466	11,56,28,181	30.2

3 (16). *Curriculum of Primary Schools.*—The “vernacular” schools started by the Bombay Native Education Society and the Board of Education were quite different from the ‘primary’ schools of to-day. At that time the object of Education was to spread Western science and literature. When this was done through English, it became an “English school” and when it was done through an Indian language, it became a “vernacular school.” In other words, the content or syllabus of both these types of schools was practically the same and the main difference between them was that of the medium of instruction only. This would also be evident from the study of the syllabus of these schools which included, in addition to the three R’s, arithmetic (complete), algebra, euclid, trigonometry, astronomy, history of England and India, geography of the World and geology, natural philosophy, and broad outline of World history. It would, therefore, be more correct to describe these “vernacular” schools as secondary schools teaching through the medium of Indian languages, than as primary schools.

This character of the vernacular schools continued right upto 1854. Till then, there was no idea of multiplying English schools on a large scale and it was, therefore, decided to increase the vernacular schools as largely as possible and to spread Western science and literature through them. But this policy was abandoned after 1855 and it was decided to increase the number of English schools and colleges and to regard them as the media for the Spread of Western science and literature. Consequently, the “vernacular” schools were assigned a very humble function to perform, viz. the preparation of students for admission to the English schools. With this change in their role which was made in 1857, a movement for simplifying the “vernacular” school course was started in earnest and by 1865-66, the number of classes in a “vernacular” school was reduced to four* and its curriculum was restricted to the three R’s.† It is at this stage that the old “vernacular” schools may be said to have become really primary schools.

Immediately after this over-simplification was carried out, a new problem presented itself. Government required a number of employees who did not need to know English but whose general education had gone beyond the three R’s. In the educational set-up created at this time, however, the highest education that one could get outside an English school was restricted to the three R’s only. Hence it was deemed essential to amend the primary course and to increase the number of classes in primary schools. In 1867-68, therefore, the number of classes was increased to five‡ and in 1870-71, they were increased to six§. Under these arrangements, a boy could go to an English school at the end of Standard IV; but one who did not desire to study English, could continue his education in Standards V and VI. “The whole Vernacular School course of elementary and middle class instruction”, wrote Peile, “is divided into six

* Prior to 1855, they varied from 6 to 10.

† This has been given in full in Section 3 (11) *supra*.

‡ See Report of the Director of Public Instruction, Bombay, 1867-68, Appendix D. for the detailed syllabus.

§ Ibid, 1870-71, pp. 462-67.

standards. It comprises Arithmetic entire and a little Euclid; a complete course of Vernacular Reading and Grammar; practice in reading and writing current hand and in composing reports or letters in it; a complete course of Indian History and an elementary view of the History of the World; Geography to illustrate the History, and an elementary knowledge of Physical Geography and the common natural phenomena.”*

This trend to amplify the curriculum of primary schools was kept up during the next thirty years. In 1887-88, the Infants’ Class was introduced and the curriculum prescribed for it included Reading, counting numbers upto 100, and multiplication tables upto 10. Besides, new subjects and techniques like object lessons, story-telling, chorus singing, physical drill, etc. were also introduced. The main object of the reform, therefore, was to begin Primary Education at a lower age and to make the instruction for young children more interesting. Incidentally, this reform also lengthened the duration of the primary course to seven years (Infants *plus* standards I-VI). In 1901-02, the Seventh Standard was added at the top and the duration of the primary course was raised to eight years. The primary curriculum now included the following subjects:—

Lower Primary Stage (Infants Class plus Stds. I and II)

Reading.—Departmental Readers in Balbodh and Modi; Learning Poetry by heart;

Writing.—Dictation in Balbodh and Modi;

Arithmetic.—Simple Arithmetic, European and Native; easy mental Arithmetic.

Geography.—Study of a Map; the four cardinal points; notion of the relative position of objects with reference to space; plan of the school house; map of the Taluka.

Object Lessons.—On subjects treated in the reading book, with simple drawing.

Upper Primary Stage (Stds. III and IV)

Reading and Writing.—As above but more advanced.

Arithmetic.—English tables of weights, measures, etc. vulgar fractions; rule of three and compound proportion; Mental Arithmetic involving the use of Native tables.

History and Geography.—History of the Province; general knowledge of the Presidency and of India; Map of India.

Object Lesson.—Plants, animals, and natural phenomena with simple drawing.

Further Stage (Stds. V, VI and VII)

Reading.—Departmental Readers; Grammar and Etymology; Manuscript reading; recitation of Poetry; Prosody.

* Report of the Director of Public Instruction, Bombay, 1870-71, p. 63.

Writing.—Essay or report writing in current hand, with attention to hand writing, spelling and punctuation.

Mathematics.—Arithmetic and Native accounts; Euclid, Book I.

History.—History of India; some instruction in the system of Indian Government.

Geography.—Geography of the World; elementary Physical Geography.

Sanitary Primer.

The trend to amplify the syllabus was also kept up during the present century. The syllabuses were revised on several occasions between 1901 and 1947—the principal revisions having been made in 1913, 1919, 1925, 1928, and 1940—and at each revision, the syllabus was made bulkier, either by the addition of new subjects or by amplification of the courses prescribed under existing subjects. Among the new subjects introduced during the period; mention may be made of plane geometry instead of euclid, nature study and school gardening (1919), drawing (for which a detailed syllabus was drawn up), and manual work. In 1923, the teaching of agriculture was introduced in some experimental primary schools called the agricultural bias schools and a special syllabus was drawn up for Standards V, VI and VII of these schools and finally a very detailed and comprehensive syllabus which had first been tried in practising schools attached to Government training colleges was introduced in all primary schools of the State with effect from June, 1940.

In 1947-48, the primary school syllabus was thoroughly recast for three main reasons: Firstly, the introduction of Basic Education had led to a general broadening of the objective of Primary Education. Primary Education was no longer directed to the imparting of mere literacy, or to the spread of some elementary facts of Western science and literature, or even to the preparation of the student for some subordinate posts in Government Departments. On the other hand, it was now argued that the main objective of Primary Education should be to develop the personality of the child, to build up his character, to teach him the dignity of labour and the responsibilities of citizenship, and to bring him into a closer contact with his immediate environment and its problems. Secondly, the attainment of Independence made it both necessary and possible to give a national orientation to Primary Education by inculcation of democratic ideals and by training the child to rise above narrow divisions of caste, language, or region and to appreciate the life and culture of India as a whole. Thirdly, it was also decided, on financial grounds, to abolish the Infants' Class and to reduce the duration of the primary course to seven years only. The entire curriculum of the primary schools, therefore, was revised. At the lower primary stage, the old course of five had to be compressed into four years and consequently, the more difficult or less important portions of the old curriculum were dropped and the new syllabus was grouped under three heads only—language, arithmetic and general knowledge which included all interesting topics under history, geography, nature-study, agriculture, civics and hygiene

appropriate to the age of the children. Moreover, an important feature of the new syllabus was the attention which children were required to pay to practical work such as, cleanliness of the class room or of the school compound, entertaining the community and participating in national and seasonal festivals. They were also required to do a considerable amount of observational work such as that of heavenly bodies or of the principal crops of the neighbourhood. At the upper primary stage, the study of the national language was made compulsory and a practical bias was given to the study of other subjects. What is more important, the entire approach to the curriculum was changed by the adoption of modern and improved methods of teaching. The mere acquisition of information or book knowledge was discouraged and an attempt was made to stimulate the child's interest and curiosity so that he might develop his exploratory instinct and the spirit of initiative. Besides, learning was now based more on activity than on books or class-room lessons and an attempt was made to socialise the child to its environment by increasing participation in community life, group activities, and by various other ways.

From the above account of the development of the curriculum of primary schools during the present century, two important trends which have motivated all the recent revisions become obvious: (1) the desire to shorten the duration of the course on financial grounds, and (2) the desire to amplify the curriculum in keeping with modern educational trends. The combined result of these conflicting desires was to put a large burden of studies on the children. In the revision of the curriculum carried out in 1947-48, for instance, it was thought that the essential content of education imparted in primary schools in five years (including the Infants' Class) could be compressed into a syllabus of four years. But this did not work out satisfactorily in practice and the usual experience of primary schools was that the new syllabus was too heavy for these standards. This was particularly so in the very large number of primary schools which had to adopt the shift system for the first two standards. With barely three hours' instruction, the teachers found it impossible to do justice to the heavy syllabus prescribed, not only in academic subjects, but also in Physical Education, drawing, craft, etc. There was, in consequence, a steady deterioration in the standards of education. Government therefore, decided to revise and simplify the syllabus as well as to bring it into line with the curriculum of basic schools to a much greater extent than in the past.

Accordingly, the syllabus for primary Standards I-IV was recast and made considerably simpler. Besides, a common curriculum was adopted for basic and other primary schools in so far as the academic subjects, cleanliness, civics, physiology and hygiene, community life, etc. were concerned. This revision of the syllabus for Standards I-IV naturally necessitated the revision of the syllabus for Standards V-VII. Here also the primary objective of the revision was simplification; but a special emphasis was laid on stimulating the powers of observation and independent thinking on the part of students and on adapting the course to the practical needs of life. Moreover, a special feature of the entire revised

course was the prominence given to the study of the mother tongue or regional language and civics. It is the usual experience that most of the students leave the school altogether at the end of the primary course and it was, therefore, thought worthwhile that they should enter life with a good knowledge of the mother-tongue and the elementary operations of arithmetic as applied to practical life. The whole of the new syllabus was introduced in all primary (including basic) and lower secondary schools with effect from June, 1955, and its working is being watched with interest.

3 (17). *Examinations in Primary Schools.*—In the early years of the new educational system, examinations of the primary schools used to be conducted by the teachers themselves. With a view to popularising the new system of education, the Board of Education introduced a system of “public examinations” under which every school held an annual examination of its pupils at a ‘public function’ to which important officials and members of the public were invited. But there was a world of difference between an external examination proper and this annual show whose main object was not so much to test the attainment of individual pupils as to carry on propaganda for the new system of education. Right till 1865, therefore, it may be said that the system of Primary Education did not suffer from the cramping influence of external examinations.

In 1865–66 the system of payment-by-results was adopted as a basis for giving grant-in-aid to private schools. The inspecting officers were, therefore, required to examine *each* pupil of the aided schools in *each* subject in order to assess the amount of the grant-in-aid. Although Government or Local authority schools were not subject to the grant-in-aid, the inspecting officers were instructed to adopt a common inspecting method for all schools—public or private. Consequently, the annual examination of every primary school began to be held by the inspecting officer concerned and the teachers lost all control over it.

This position lasted till about 1938 in spite of the fact that the system of payment-by-results was discontinued in the early years of this century. The general view was that primary teachers would not work properly unless their teaching was checked regularly through external annual examinations conducted by the inspecting officers. Although there is something to be said for this view and although these external examinations did exert a healthy influence in maintaining standards, their evil results—which are too well-known to need enumeration here—far outweighed their advantages. The Popular Ministry, therefore, abolished this system altogether and ever since, the annual examinations of the primary schools have ceased to be a duty of the inspecting officers. They are now rightly regarded as problems of internal school administration and are organised by the Administrative Officers with the help of the teachers themselves. The records of these examinations, however, are preserved and made available to the inspecting officers who have to satisfy themselves that the promotions made from class to class are judicious.

The most important examination at the primary level is the Primary School Certificate Examination* which is held at the end of the primary course. This began in 1866 as a Public Service Certificate Examination (Second Class) which qualified those that passed it for appointment as clerks in vernacular offices of Government. It was first held at the end of primary Standard III (when the primary course had four standards) and then at the end of Standard IV (when the primary course had five standards). But from 1871, it became a School Final Examination and is being held at the end of the primary course.

In 1924-25 a separate Vernacular Final Examination for girls was introduced. This was also held at the end of the primary course; but as the primary course for girls had six standards only, the standard of this examination was lower than that of the boys which was held at the end of the Seventh Standard. As in the case of the boys, however, the name of this examination was changed to Primary School Leaving Certificate Examination in 1936-37 and to P. S. C. Examination in 1940-41. As a common primary course for boys and girls was adopted in 1940-41, a common Primary School Certificate Examination for boys and girls was held in 1948 and the separate final examination for the girls came to an end.

The following table shows the results of the final examinations of the primary course for a few selected years since 1871:—

TABLE NO. 3 (19)

Primary School Certificate Examination (1871-1955)

Name of the Examination.	Year.	Number appeared.	Number passed.	Percentage of passing.
1	2	3	4	5
Second Class Public Service Examination.	1870-71	not available	1,421	...
Second Class Public Service Examination.	1881-82	3,771	1,253	33.2
Third Grade Public Service Examination.	1891-92	3,929	1,302	33.1
Third Grade Public Service Examination.	1901-02	3,470	1,551	44.7
Public Service Certificate Examination (Vernacular).	1904-05	2,917	1,240	42.5
Vernacular Final Examination.	1906-07	4,155	1,975	47.5

* The name of this examination has been often changed. In 1866 it was called the Public Service Certificate Examination (Second Class). In 1887, it was designated as the Public Service Certificate Examination (Third Grade). In 1904-05 its name was changed to the Public Service Certificate (Vernacular Examination) and in 1906-07 it was called the Vernacular Final Examination. In 1936-37, it was called the Primary School Leaving Certificate Examination and its present name was adopted in 1940. For details regarding the early history of this examination, see Appendix H of the Report for 1886-87.

TABLE No. 3 (19)—contd.

Name of the Examination.	Year.	Number appeared.	Number passed.	Percentage of passing.
1	2	3	4	5
Vernacular Final Examination	1916-17	7,513	3,267	43.4
Vernacular Final Examination for Boys.	1926-27	12,156	5,581	45.9
Vernacular Final Examination for Girls.	1926-27	1,520	690	45.4
Primary School Leaving Certificate Examination for Boys.	1936-37	17,442	7,197	41.2
Primary School Leaving Certificate Examination for Girls.	1936-37	5,347	2,013	37.6
Primary School Certificate Examination for Boys.	1946-47	42,513	17,118	40.2
Primary School Certificate Examination for Girls.	1946-47	9,114	3,150	34.6
		51,627	20,268	39.3
Primary School Leaving Certificate Examination for Boys.	1951-52	94,968	39,321	41.4
Primary School Leaving Certificate Examination for Girls.	1951-52	25,440	10,249	40.2
		1,20,408	49,570	41.2
Primary School Leaving Certificate Examination for Boys.	1953-54	1,20,004	54,663	45.6
Primary School Leaving Certificate Examination for Girls.	1953-54	34,037	14,540	42.7
		1,54,041	69,203	44.9
Primary School Leaving Certificate Examination for Boys.	1954-55	1,25,444	55,051	43.9
Primary School Leaving Certificate Examination for Girls.	1954-55	34,576	13,457	38.9
Total ...		1,60,020	68,508	42.8

3 (18). *The State Board of Primary Education.*—When the Bombay Primary Education Act, 1923, was amended in 1938 by the Popular Ministry, a State Board of Primary Education was created. It consisted of 12 persons, six of whom were elected by the local bodies authorised to manage Primary Education and six were nominated by Government. Of the nominated members, not more than three were to be officials and a convention was set up from the very beginning that representative of the Bombay Municipal Corporation should be included among the nominated members. The powers and duties of the Board were defined as follows:

(a) to examine and recommend schemes for the organisation, co-ordination and expansion of Primary Education and for the correlation of Primary Education with the system of education as a whole;

(b) to advise Government generally on all matters connected with Primary Education; and

(c) to exercise such other powers and to perform such other duties as may be prescribed.

The Board was first constituted in 1940 and it has since been reconstituted in 1943, 1946 and 1951. It has rendered valuable service and has advised Government, from time to time, on several important matters relating to Primary Education.

3 (19). *Primary School Buildings.*—So far, the various quantitative administrative and financial problems of Primary Education have been dealt with in detail. Of the qualitative and academic problems, a brief resume of the development of the primary curriculum has already been given in Section (16) earlier. The remuneration of primary teachers was also discussed in Section (14) and their training will be discussed later in Chapter VII. The movement of Basic Education which aims at altering the entire character of the traditional system of primary schools will be described in Chapter IV. It is, therefore, necessary here to deal only with the remaining aspects of Primary Education, viz. (a) provision of good school buildings, (b) the experiments made so far to adjust Primary Education to rural conditions, and (c) the methods that are being adopted to increase its effectiveness.

Prior to 1921, there was no organised activity in this State for the construction of buildings for primary schools. Expenditure on buildings was regarded as discretionary and it was obviously possible to curtail or omit it without any serious adverse effect upon the general system of education. Consequently, buildings were constructed when funds were available and when a period of financial stringency set in, building programmes were either curtailed or dropped. The history of the last hundred years shows that a large building activity was undertaken between 1865 and 1882 when the proceeds of the local fund cess became first available. The second boom period came in the early years of this century when large central grants were given for the improvement of Primary Education. The local bodies in general and the Municipalities in particular did also help in the programme of constructing school buildings when Primary Education was transferred to them in 1884-85. Although a large number of primary school buildings were thus constructed prior to 1921, there was neither a definite programme for, nor a continuity in, the activity.

Under Dyarchy, the programme of school buildings received a great set back owing mainly to the prevailing financial stringency of the period. This was a time when the pressure of expansion was very great and the available funds were so inadequate that, for a time, even emergency cuts in salaries had to be imposed. It was but natural, therefore, that building programmes were either dropped or heavily curtailed. Another typical difficulty created was the lengthy and elaborate procedure prescribed for the sanction of building grants to local bodies. Under its provisions, a building had to be constructed first and then a formal claim

was to be submitted to Government for a grant-in-aid. The requirements laid down for the submission of this claim were extremely cumbersome and even when every technicality was complied with, the final sanction of the grant was discretionary and subject to availability of funds. The result was that the local bodies had hardly any inducement to plan and undertake adequate building programmes.

A great achievement of this period, however, was the Sir Purushottamdas Thakurdas School Building Scheme for the Surat District. Sir Purushottamdas announced that if the local people gave free land and one-third to one-half of the cost of the building, he would provide the remainder of the cost for village school buildings in the Surat District. This generous offer was warmly welcomed and between 1927 and 1937, as many as 90 school buildings were constructed under it at a total cost of Rs. 4,56,427.

When the Popular Ministry came into office in 1937, the problem of primary school buildings was taken up in right earnest. It was realised that the financial implications of a programme of providing every primary school with a good building were colossal and that worthwhile results would not be achieved unless some radical measures were adopted. The far-reaching plans evolved for this purpose by the Popular Ministry since 1937 may be described under four heads, viz. (a) the creation of a Primary School Building Committee in every district with the object of organising a planned and continuous programme (b) preparation of cheap type-designs in order to reduce the overall cost of the programme; (c) the grant of loans from the accumulated provident fund balances of the District School Board staff for the purpose of constructing school buildings; and (d) encouragement to local initiative and enterprise for constructing school buildings.

(a) *Primary School Building Committees.*—In 1938 Government created a Primary School Building Committee in every district for the purpose of organising a planned and continuous programme of constructing buildings for primary schools. These Committees consisted of the Educational Inspector (Chairman), the Chairman of the District School Board, the Executive Engineer of the district, all local members of the Legislature, and the Deputy Educational Inspector of the district (Secretary). Government placed fixed lump sum grants annually at the disposal of each Committee and they were credited to a fund created for the purpose. An amount equal to fifty per cent. of the grant sanctioned by Government had also to be credited to the fund by the District Local Board which was authorised to include, within its own contributions, the amount paid by the local people. The Committee had full authority to sanction and execute the construction of primary school buildings subject to the general and special orders issued by Government from time to time.

In 1948, the constitution of the Building Committees was slightly changed and the Administrative Officer of the District School Board was appointed Secretary instead of the Deputy Educational Inspector. In 1950

some major changes in the composition of the Committee were made. The Educational Inspector now ceased to be a member of the Committee and the President of the District Local Board concerned was appointed Chairman. The Prant Officers of the district were included as *ex-officio* members for the first time and power was also taken to nominate two prominent non-officials as members of the Committee.

From 1947 the District Local Boards were absolved from the responsibility of making any contribution to the funds of the Building Committee and it was laid down that the local people should contribute not less than 1/4th of the cost of the building and that the remainder should be given from the funds of the Committee as grant-in-aid.

The District Building Committees have been functioning in the State for the last 17 years and the experience of their working has shown that the construction of primary school building is greatly expedited through them.

(b) *Cheap Type Design for School Buildings.*—With a view to reducing the over-all cost of buildings, four standard cheap designs have been approved so far. The selection of the exact design suitable for a locality is left to the District Primary School Building Committee which decides the matter in view of the local climatic conditions and availability of building materials. On the whole, it may be said that the cost per room varies from Rs. 2,000 at the minimum to Rs. 3,400 at the maximum according to the design selected. The cheapest type-design has been specially prepared for backward and poor areas where local contribution in cash is not likely to be available. The more costly designs are meant for the better and more well-to-do villages where local contribution is easily forthcoming and is often larger than the minimum laid down. A rule, however, has been laid down that the contribution of Government should not exceed Rs. 2,500 per room in any case.

(c) *Construction of Buildings for Primary Schools out of Loans Sanctioned from the Accumulated Provident Fund Balances.*—In 1951, Government undertook an important scheme with the object of expediting the construction of buildings for primary schools. According to its provisions, the Bombay Primary Education Act, 1947, and the Bombay Housing Board Act, 1948, were suitably amended and power was taken by Government to manage the provident fund of the employees of the District School Boards. The law now empowers Government to utilise the accumulated balances of the provident fund for the purpose of giving loans to District School Boards for the construction of and special repairs to the primary school buildings. The loans bear interest at 4 per cent. per annum and are to be repaid by 20 equated annual instalments.

The scheme began in 1953-54 and a sum of Rs. 50 lakhs a year was set aside for granting loans for a period of three years in the first instance. Until 31st March, 1955, a total sum of Rs. 99,95,496 was sanctioned as loans to the District School Boards for construction of and special repairs to primary school buildings.

(d) *Encouragement to Local Initiative and Enterprise for the Construction of School Buildings.*—Government have also taken several measures to stimulate local initiative and enterprise in the construction of school-buildings. Although the minimum local contribution required for the purpose of constructing a school building has been fixed at one-fourth of the total cost, villages which pay more than the prescribed minimum are given priority in the programme. Experience has shown that this is a good stimulus and several villages take advantage of it. In order, however, that the poorer and more backward villages may not suffer in this competition, Government exempts such villages from the payment of contribution in cash, provided local material and unskilled labour are contributed, as far as possible.

In the Ratnagiri District where the villagers have shown a great enthusiasm for the construction of school buildings, the local District Building Committee suggested a scheme under which a grant of Rs. 500 per room was to be paid if the village people constructed the building for themselves. The only conditions laid down are (1) that the life of the building should be more than 25 years, (2) that it should be structurally safe, (3) that it should provide necessary floor space, light and ventilation and (4) that its valuation should not be less than Rs. 1,000 per room. Several buildings were constructed under this plan in the Ratnagiri District. Government has now generalised the scheme and applied it to the State as a whole and it is found that villages in other districts also are taking advantage of the same.

Another scheme of a slightly different type has also been adopted by Government with the same object. Under this plan, the villagers are left free to choose any of the approved type-designs and construct a school building accordingly. They are assured of a grant of Rs. 1,000 per room of which half is paid in advance and the remainder is paid after the building is satisfactorily completed.

As a result of the various programmes described above, the construction of primary school buildings in the State has made good progress since 1936-37 and especially after 1951-52.

3 (20). *The Rural or Modi Standards.*—As stated earlier, the object of the first primary schools organised in the State was to spread Western science and literature and that they had an ambitious curriculum designed for the purpose. This did not create any practical difficulties so long as the schools were restricted to urban areas and were mostly availed of by the upper and middle classes. When, however, the primary schools began to be established in villages and the agricultural and poorer classes began to take advantage of them, the heavy curriculum of the Government primary schools came in for a good deal of criticism. "In a former report" wrote the Educational Inspector of the Southern Division in 1869, "I once mentioned that one of the chief men in a large village, after sitting out the school examination, in which he seemed to take some interest, asked me to order the schoolmaster to teach only writing and ciphering, and not to use printed books or maps. This year, at another large

village, which has a great deal of good land, and pays much cess, the Kulkarni told me, that if I made the schoolmaster teach only writing and ciphering the school attendance would be trebled; that the people did not want what he called 'Sirkaree Vidya', that "Gawtee Vidya" was enough for them and as much as their children could be expected to acquire. A village elder and spokesman at another place (a Talooka Town, where the Mamlatdar was present at the school examination) made a very animated speech against much learning, and in favour of the peoples' right to be as ignorant as their fathers. He said Government seemed to wish to make the people clever, and that education was doubtless a proper thing for Europe and Europeans, but that his people preferred to remain as they were. I mention these things in illustration of the general, if not universal, feeling of the people, which must be taken into account in judging of the progress of Government Vernacular Schools and in revising examination standards. I have elsewhere reported that I do not think these standards should be lowered; but I think some compromise should be made to induce boys to attend our schools, who now attend only indigenous schools or none at all."*

This agitation for a simpler curriculum had to be taken note of and accordingly, in 1877-78, a separate curriculum for rural schools was drawn up. In the beginning, it had only four standards; but in 1887-88, it was spread over six years by adding an Infant Class at the bottom and a Standard V at the top. This course was also known as the 'Modi Standards' in Maharashtra, because it taught the Modi script of writing which was not taught in the ordinary primary schools. In 1901-02, the Director of Education compared this simpler rural course with the ordinary primary course in the following words:—

"As compared with the general course, the boy who takes the Modi or rural standards learns only the more practically useful rules of Arithmetic entirely omitting Decimal Fractions, nor does he learn any Euclid. He learns only those branches of account and book-keeping which he will actually need in later life. The technical terms used in formal documents are rendered familiar in his reading books. He can write simple reports in Modi and read fluently from the miscellaneous file in a Mamlatdar's office. His knowledge of history is limited to his Province, and his knowledge of Geography to India. He has been given also some idea of rudimentary science and sanitation. The scope of this course is thus severely utilitarian; but it is hoped that the introduction of object lessons and simple drawing will tend to relieve the monotony of the curriculum."†

Although these courses were popular for a few years, the public feeling began to turn against them, especially during the early years of the present century. The pupils who studied this course were not able to appear for the Primary School Certificate Examination and thus qualify themselves for service under Government. Nor were they able to join an English school and proceed to higher education. Moreover, an ele-

* Report of the Director of Public Instruction, Bombay, 1869-70, pp. 180-81.

† Progress of Education in India, 1897-1902, p. 164.

ment of inferiority was associated with this course which awakened village people began to resent. These rural standards were, therefore, abolished in 1916-17 and a common curriculum was adopted for all primary schools, both urban and rural.

3 (21). *The Agricultural Bias Schools*.—If the rural standards merely tried to substitute a simpler curriculum for adjusting the primary schools to rural requirements, a more radical step was taken under Dyarchy, by opening agricultural bias primary schools. As most of the rural population follows agriculture as a way of living, the Conference of Agricultural Education held at Simla in 1917 passed a resolution recommending introduction of agriculture in the curriculum of primary schools. The principle underlying this recommendation was accepted by Government. After a careful examination of the problem, however, Government decided that the younger pupils in primary Standards I to IV need not be burdened with any Agricultural Education and that Pre-Vocational Agricultural Education might be advantageously introduced in the upper primary standards. Accordingly, four experimental agricultural bias schools were opened in the State proper in 1923, the teachers for them being trained in a special course at the Agriculture School at Loni (District Poona).* As the experiment showed signs of success, it was extended to 17 more schools in 1924-25; and, thereafter, the number of schools was increased from time to time until it reached 81 in 1941-42. In 1926, a special Primary School Certificate Examination was also organised for the students of these classes. The object of the Agricultural Bias Course was to provide such instruction to village children as would be useful to them in their future life as agriculturists. In addition to some theoretical study of agriculture, therefore, the course provided work on the school-farm and some instruction in village carpentry and smithy. The course was too elementary in character to make its student a good agriculturist. But it was felt that a pupil who has undergone this course would be in a better position to live as an agriculturist than another whose education had been on the traditional lines.

In 1933-34 when the agricultural bias classes had been in existence for 10 years, a Special Officer† was appointed to inquire into their working and to suggest measures for their improvement. The report of this Special Officer showed that the classes could be run on economic lines and that the children learning the course could become more useful members of the village community. As a result of these recommendations, Government decided that these classes need no longer be considered as experimental and that they should be regarded as normal institutions for rural areas.

* As the number of the agricultural bias classes increased, a special school for training their teachers was organised at Narayangaon, District Poona, in 1929. It was shifted to Loni in 1932-33 and converted into a Basic Training Centre, in 1939-40.

† This was Shri V. D. Ghate, the then Educational Inspector. His *Report on Agricultural Bias Classes (attached to rural primary schools)* was published in 1935.

One practical difficulty experienced in the work of these classes was financial. Apart from the non-recurring expenditure on tools etc., every agricultural bias class needed a recurring expenditure of about Rs. 450 per year on account of the special pay to be given to the teacher-in-charge, contingencies, etc. The actual experience was that only a small portion of this expenditure could be realised through the produce of the school farm. It was, however, hoped that if the recommendations made by the Special Officer were carried out and the efficiency of these classes was improved, it would be possible to make them practically self-supporting in so far as the additional recurring expenditure was concerned.

The following table shows the number of agricultural bias classes and their pupils in a few selected years:—

TABLE No. 3 (20)

Agricultural Bias Classes and their Pupils (1926-42)

Year.	Total No. of Schools.	No. of their Pupils.
1926-27	52	1,587
1931-32	80	2,824
1937-38	81	3,276
1941-42	81	4,300

When the scheme of Basic Education was introduced in 1939, the question of the future of these classes had to be considered *de novo*. In 1946, therefore, it was decided that these classes should, in principle, be regarded as basic schools and that they should be fully converted to the basic pattern at an early date. These are, therefore, being treated as *craft schools* (with agriculture as a craft) at present.

3 (22). *Central Schools*.—Another interesting experiment undertaken by Government in rural areas is that of the Central Schools. With the object of vitalising Primary Education in rural areas, the *ad hoc* Committee appointed by Government under the Chairmanship of Acharya S. R. Bhise recommended the establishment of Central Primary Schools in which a special effort could be made to integrate Primary Education with rural reconstruction by converting the school into a community centre for the village. This recommendation has been accepted by Government and as an experiment one Central School has been organised in every district (1954). In order to bring about a marked qualitative improvement these schools have been placed under trained graduates. It is rather early to pronounce any final verdict on their results but the potentiality of the experiment is obvious. Some time will necessarily

be lost while these schools are finding their feet. But once they begin to function as efficient and model primary schools, their effect will begin to spread to the primary schools in the neighbourhood. Ultimately, therefore, these schools will have a great role to play in improving the standard of Primary Education in rural areas.

3 (23). *Wastage*.—An important aspect of the developments in Primary education during the present century is the large increase in the number of primary schools and of the pupils attending them. The total expenditure of Primary Education has also increased very greatly during the last fifty years. Ordinarily, this expansion ought to have been accompanied by a corresponding rise in the percentage of literacy. But, unfortunately, it is found that the growth of literacy has been very slow. This will be clearly seen from the following statistics:—

	1901.	1951.	Increase per cent.
No. of Primary Schools	8,987	28,335	215.3
No. of Pupils in Primary Schools.	5,13,211	34,78,221	577.7
Total expenditure on Primary Schools.	Rs. 35,09,316	10,51,23,942	2895.6
Percentage of literacy	6.75	24.56	263.8

This lag between the expansion of the facilities in Primary Education on the one hand and the percentage of literacy in the adult population on the other has seriously disturbed educational administrators. The problem was pointedly brought before the public for the first time by the Hartog Committee which suggested that this lack of effectiveness was due to three main causes—wastage, stagnation, and lapse into illiteracy. Since then, these factors have been discussed almost continuously and various steps have been taken or proposed to eliminate them. The policy of Government in these matters as well as the methods adopted in this State to reduce these evils will be briefly described in this and the following two paragraphs.

Wastage has been formally defined as the premature withdrawal of children from primary schools before they have stayed there long enough to attain permanent literacy. The view held by the Department—and this has been confirmed by factual investigations carried out—has been that a child who has passed Standard III of a primary school and has also spent some time in Standard IV generally attains such a degree of literacy that it is not lost for a long time in the normal conditions that obtain in our country. It is, therefore, the usual practice to ascertain the extent of wastage by comparing the number of pupils in Standard I of primary schools with those that remain in Standard IV four years later.

The following table shows the percentage of wastage so calculated for a few recent years:—

TABLE No. 3 (21)

Wastage (1947-55)

Year.	Pupils.		
	No. in Standard I.	No. in Standard IV.	Percentage of Pupils in Std. IV to those in Std. I
1	2	3	4
1947-48	12,63,558
1950-51	...	485,147	38.4
1948-49	12,43,313
1951-52	...	493,577	47.3
1949-50	11,26,683
1952-53	...	437,376	38.8
1950-51	11,13,974
1953-54	...	431,464	38.7
1951-52	10,94,733
1954-55	...	440,974	40.3

Ordinarily, one expects that most of the pupils in Standard I would reach Standard IV in a period of four years. Instead of this, it is found that only 40 per cent. of the children enrolled in Standard I reach Standard IV four years later. This shows the considerable amount of wastage that occurs in the system of Primary Education at present.

Wastage is due to several causes. The most important probably is the general poverty of the people which compels them to withdraw children from schools at a very early age and to engage them in some occupation to balance the family budget. This is even more general in the case of girls who are almost always required to be kept at home, either to take care of a younger child or to assist the mother in the kitchen. The second important cause is the absence of compulsory education. In a society like the present rural population, public opinion is not sufficiently awakened to the advantages of education and a rigorous enforcement of the Compulsory Education Act is the one sure remedy, not only to enrol a larger number of children in the schools, but also to keep them in schools until permanent literacy is attained. The other causes of wastage such as the existence of incomplete schools (i. e. schools which do not teach the whole of the junior primary course), lack of co-ordination between the local conditions and the hours of working and vacations of the primary schools, unattractive teaching methods or atmosphere that is found in a large number of existing primary schools etc. are significant; but they do not contribute very materially to the result.

The first of these causes can only be removed gradually through economic development plans undertaken by the National and State Governments. Government is trying its best to introduce compulsory education in all areas of the State and to remove the second important cause of wastage. The progress made in this direction has been described already. Regarding the other causes, Government is adopting several measures such as training of teachers, introduction of crafts and handwork, conversion of primary schools to the basic pattern, provision of good buildings and equipment, suitable changes in the hours of work and vacations of primary schools to meet local requirements, and the introduction of a simplified but more attractive curriculum. As may be anticipated, the results can only be slow to come in a qualitative programme of this type.

3 (24). *Stagnation*.—Stagnation is defined as the retention of a child in the same class for more than one year.

At the primary level, stagnation ought to be the least and in a properly organised system of education, almost every child which has been in regular attendance ought to be promoted to the next class at the end of the year. But an examination of the existing educational system shows that stagnation is very large even at the primary stage and that it is the highest in the first year class where nearly half of the children are detained every year.

As in the case of wastage, the causes of stagnation also are varied. But briefly, they might be stated as (a) irregular attendance, (b) inefficient teaching (c) over-loaded syllabus which is beyond the capacity of the children of the age-group concerned, and (d) a defective system of examinations. In the first year class there are, in addition to the above, two other important causes of stagnation, *viz.*, (a) irregular admission which go on throughout the year, and (b) a low age of admission.

Government has been adopting a number of measures to reduce the amount of stagnation in primary schools. Some of the measures which are being taken to eliminate wastage by improving the atmosphere and the teaching methods of ordinary primary schools will also result in reducing the extent of stagnation. Besides, as the enforcement of compulsory education becomes more effective, irregularity of attendance will be lessened and thereby the extent of stagnation would also be reduced. The attempts made so far to simplify the syllabus and to provide an improved method of annual examinations have already been described. Further, the age of admission has now been raised to six *plus* and strict orders have been issued that no child shall be admitted afresh to the first year class, three months after the opening of the school year.

3 (25). *Lapse into Illiteracy*.—Lapse into illiteracy is the third cause of the ineffectiveness of Primary Education. The Hartog Committee observed that it was impossible to estimate the extent of such lapse accurately, but that there was every indication to show that it was large.* Investigations into the problem were made by the Baroda State and a special investigation was also carried out by the Gokhale Institute of Politics and Economics, Poona, at the request of the Government of

Bombay. The findings of these investigations, however, show that the extent of the lapse into illiteracy is not so large as it was made out to be. In the case of children who leave schools after literacy is attained, that is, after a study of four years, the extent of 'lapse' is not more than about 5 per cent. and it is almost negligible in the case of those who leave school after passing Standard IV.

Shri D. R. Gadgil, the Director of the Gokhale Institute of Politics and Economics, has rightly pointed out that there are two sure ways of reducing this lapse to a minimum. The first is to ensure that every child will continue in school for at least four years and the second is to provide suitable reading material and organise a system of village reading-rooms and libraries for the maintenance of literacy attained in primary schools. Action on both these lines is being taken by Government. The programme of compulsory education which has already been described elsewhere is resulting in a prolongation of the average school life of children. Similarly, Government has undertaken a scheme of village reading-rooms and libraries which will be described in detail in Chapter IX.

3 (26). *Conclusion*.—It will be seen from the foregoing account that the Bombay State has made considerable progress in Primary Education during the last hundred years. Although the traditional system of indigenous schools was neglected and allowed to die, the loss has now been made up by an almost ubiquitous system of the new type of primary schools that has been organised instead. The number of schoolless villages in this State, therefore, is very small and their population does not even exceed five per cent. of the total. The enrolment of pupils has also increased very largely and now stands at 10.7 per cent. of the total population. Moreover, a very large number of primary schools are under public management so that the uncertainty which is usually associated with the work of voluntary agencies does not affect the organisation of Primary Education in this State. Government now spends a very large proportion of its total revenues on Education and more than 50 per cent. of this grant is allocated to the development of Primary Education. This State has also been a pioneer in the field of Compulsory Primary Education and to-day it has a much larger area under compulsory education than any other State of the Indian Union. In spite of this emphasis on expansion, however, it is worthy of note that quality has not been allowed to suffer. Notable progress has been made in respect of the curriculum, the training of primary teachers and construction of good school buildings. Moreover, in the Second Five Year Plan the development of Primary Education is further emphasised and it is hoped that the Primary Education in the State would make even greater progress in the next few years.

* Report, pp. 48-49.

CHAPTER IV

BASIC EDUCATION

The scheme of Basic Education was placed before the nation by Mahatma Gandhi in 1937 and shortly thereafter, the Government of Bombay decided to try it, as an experimental measure, in a few selected compact areas. The subsequent history of this experiment can be divided into two periods:—

(1) The first period which extends from 1938-39 to 1946-47 (hereinafter described as the experimental period) when Basic Education was being studied as an experiment in a few selected schools; and

(2) The second period which extends from 1947-48 to 1954-55 (hereinafter described as the transitional period) when steps were taken by Government to adopt measures which would enable it to convert all primary schools into basic schools in the near future.

The main events of these two periods are briefly described in the paragraphs that follow.

4 (2). *The Experiment Starts (1938-39).*—In 1938, Government decided to introduce Basic Education as an experiment in a few selected schools and adopted the following measures for the purpose:—

(1) A Special Officer for Basic Education was appointed to organise, supervise and develop the experiment in all its aspects (November, 1938).

(2) An Advisory Committee for Basic Education was constituted with Shri Narharbhai Parikh as Chairman and the Special Officer as Secretary (January, 1939). It consisted of several non-officials, selected from the three linguistic areas of the State, who were interested in the experiment and who had the academic authority to give guidance and help to the officers and teachers conducting the experiment. The main function of the Committee was to advise Government on all matters relating to Basic Education.

(3) Four compact areas were selected, in the three linguistic divisions of the State, for trying the experiment. One of these was in the Surat District; two were located in the Districts of Satara and East Khandesh; and one was located in the District of Dharwar. The total number of schools selected in these compact areas was 55—13 Gujarati schools, 20 Marathi schools, 16 Kannada schools and 6 Urdu schools situated in all the compact areas. Some of these schools were big enough to have all the seven standards while others were smaller schools with one or two teachers.

Some local authorities and private bodies came forward enthusiastically and offered to try the experiment in a few selected schools of their own. It was, therefore, decided to give scope to these agencies and 35 isolated basic schools were also organised outside the compact areas described above. Of these, 5 were conducted by two private agencies—the Tilak Maharashtra Vidyapeeth conducted four schools in the Poona District and Shri Parikh conducted a school at Thamna in the Kaira District

under his personal supervision. All these schools were given liberal grants-in-aid and Government also agreed to admit the expenditure incurred by local authorities on the remaining 30 schools for purposes of grant.

(4) The next problem was to select and train teachers for these schools. For this purpose, a few selected trained graduate teachers working in training institutions and secondary schools were sent to Jamia Millia, Delhi, for a week and to Wardha for three weeks, where a short course of training was organised by the Hindustani Talimi Sangh. On return, these teachers started three Short Term Training Courses of three months' duration in Gujarati, Marathi and Kannada and trained 130 primary school teachers. This course of training comprised craft (spinning and weaving), history of the National Awakening, principles of Basic Education and methods of correlated teaching. Thus the first batch of teachers to staff the selected basic schools was trained and ready to start its work by the end of May, 1939.

(5) It was also necessary to draw up a detailed syllabus for use in the basic schools and consequently, a new course was prepared on the lines suggested by the Zakir Hussain Committee. It was decided to introduce this new syllabus in Standards I and II only in the first instance; to extend it thereafter to each successive higher standard year by year; and to cover the whole course in a period of six years.

When all these preliminary arrangements were completed, Basic Education was introduced in Standards I and II of 93 selected schools (55 in compact areas, 35 isolated schools and 3 practising schools attached to basic training centres) in June, 1939. This was indeed a very humble beginning; but in view of the tremendous difficulties involved in the experiment such as the lack of trained teachers, absence of suitable books, lack of trained officers for supervision and guidance, and the non-existence of a suitable administrative machinery to try the experiment on proper lines, this was probably the maximum that could have been reasonably attempted.

4 (3). *The Experimental Period (1939-47).*—During the next eight years the area of the experiment was not extended; but it had to contend against a large number of difficulties some of which were quite unforeseen.

Early in 1939, steps were taken by Government to provide for efficient supervision over the basic schools as well as to maintain a continuous supply of adequately trained teachers for them. To secure the first of these objectives, special arrangements were made for the supervision of basic schools in the compact areas and an experienced trained graduate who had attended the short courses of training at Wardha was appointed to supervise and guide the work in academic subjects in each area. He was expected to visit each basic school once a fortnight, spend the whole day there, discuss the progress of the pupils with the teachers, give instructions and suggestions to the teachers for improvement in their work, give demonstration lessons, plan the work for the next fortnight and act as a guide to teachers and as a link between one school and another and between the schools and the training centres in

that area. Another officer, an expert in craft work, was appointed to supervise and organise the work in Craft on lines similar to those in academic subjects. He had also to consult the Administrative Officer of the district in the supply of equipment and raw materials needed for the craft. Thus each area had one basic supervisor and one craft supervisor. The Special Officer and the members of the Advisory Committee also visited the schools and gave guidance and suggestions to teachers from time to time.

To secure the second objective and to keep up the supply of suitable trained teachers for the extension of Basic Education to upper standards, three independent training centres (with practising schools attached) were started in June, 1939. A special syllabus to be covered in one year was drawn up and Matriculates or First Year trained teachers were admitted for training. The syllabus comprised training in (1) craft (spinning and carding); (2) languages (mother-tongue and Hindustani); (3) history (including civics and history of the National Awakening); (4) geography; (5) science; (6) rural uplift; (7) drawing; (8) principles of Basic Education and Psychology; and (9) practice teaching in schools. These training centres were located at Dharwar in Karnatak, at Loni (Poona District) in Maharashtra and at Katargaum (Surat District) in Gujarat. In July, 1939, an independent training centre for Urdu teachers was also started and located at Jalgaon in the East Khandesh District. Students for training in these institutions were selected on the recommendation of the Administrative Officers of the various local authorities and care was taken to see that only such teachers as had an inclination for this type of work were selected.

Hardly had these measures been taken when a political crisis in the country led to the resignation of the Popular Ministry and consequently the experiment received a great set back. The Caretaker Government decided to maintain the *status quo* and to continue the experiment. But a more progressive policy was essential if the experiment was to be given a proper trial. The work of the basic schools, therefore, began to suffer in various directions, and in consequence the members of the Advisory Committee sent in their resignations in 1941. Thereupon the Adviser to the Governor in charge of Education called a special meeting of the Advisory Committee and discussed its proposals; but as the members were not satisfied with the trend of the discussions, they declined to continue as members of the Committee and hence there was no Advisory Committee between 1941 and 1944.

Secondly, the political struggle in which most of the prominent workers in Basic Education were involved necessarily affected the progress of the experiment, especially that of the basic schools conducted by the private agencies. Of the 4 schools conducted by the Tilak Maharashtra Vidyapeeth, one was closed in 1939-40, another in 1941-42, and the third in 1942-43*. The School started by Shri Narharbhai Parikh in the Kaira District worked well for the first two years, but it began to deteriorate from 1941

and went down completely in 1942-43, when Shri Parikh himself could not supervise its work.

Thirdly, the isolated basic schools also came to grief within a short time. They functioned only for a year and had to be closed on account of the difficulty of providing adequate supervision and guidance. They, therefore, reverted to the old academic syllabus, but in a few schools spinning continued to be taught as an additional subject.

The selected schools in the compact areas continued to function; but even here, the teachers and the administrators had to contend against several types of difficulties. The first of these was due to defects in the selection of areas or schools. In the Surat District, for example, the climate of a part of a compact area was so unhealthy that teachers were unwilling to work continuously therein during the entire period of the experiment. Moreover, some schools had no adequate means of communication and presented insuperable difficulties of supervision, especially during the monsoon months. Some basic schools in this District had, therefore, to be closed. Similarly, some schools in the Satara District also had to be closed owing to scanty rains and a shifting population. The second type of difficulties arose from public opposition and the Urdu schools, in particular, did not fare well under the scheme. Mainly owing to the hostile attitude adopted by the Muslim Community, four Urdu schools which showed irregular and inadequate attendance and even the Urdu Training Centre at Jalgaon had to be closed. Even in the Hindu Community, the general attitude of the public created serious difficulties of administration. It is true that the scheme was welcomed by the public and that the people co-operated with it for the first two years. But a general indifference set in after 1942, especially because of the absence of proper guidance from social workers most of whom were then engaged in the political struggle. In some quarters, a critical or even hostile attitude began to develop on account of the suspicion that the academic attainments of the students in basic schools would be inferior to those in the traditional schools, due mainly to the large time devoted to craft. Besides, the academicians of this period had not yet accepted the philosophy of Basic Education so that a section of the press and the public made continual attacks on the experiment and weakened the faith of the humble teachers working in the basic schools. The third type of difficulties was administrative. The compact areas were small and undeveloped so that the teachers from other parts of the district did not like to work in them. This trend was also accentuated by the fact that, although the work in basic schools was more difficult and strenuous there was no monetary reward to balance this handicap. Similarly, the schools often lost good and trained teachers when promotions became due, and the lack of suitable buildings with adequate accommodation proved to be another handicap of great importance. The fourth type of difficulties arose from the novelty of the experiment and the total lack of precedents to guide the workers. For example, several difficulties were experienced in working out the syllabus drawn up in 1939. In the earlier years, far too much emphasis was laid on correlation of the different subjects with the craft so that unhappy, artificial and vague attempts at correlation were often

* The fourth school continued to work till 1950 when it was handed over to the District School Board, Poona.

seen in the day-to-day working of the schools. Similarly, excursions to different localities in the village and practical civic training such as village *safai* formed the main social activities; but these did not give enough opportunity for teaching all topics. Deficiencies of this type made the work of the basic schools suffer; but what is worse, they often created misunderstandings and prejudices against Basic Education itself. Fifthly, the selection of crafts also presented difficulties, especially in the Satara area where cotton was not locally grown so that the spinning of wool had to be adopted in place of cotton-spinning which had been introduced earlier. Sixthly, difficulties were also experienced in supplying adequate equipment of the right type and it was a great headache to devise and set up the new administrative procedures required for organising craft-teaching in schools. And seventhly, the most serious difficulties were encountered in the disposal of the yarn produced by the schools. In the early years, only spinning had been introduced as a craft and it was made a duty of the basic schools and Government to dispose of the yarn spun by the pupils. As the beginning of the syllabus had been made from Standards I—II only and the experiment was to be extended gradually to the higher standards, it was not possible to organise weaving in schools. For the disposal of yarn, therefore, the schools had to depend almost entirely on private agencies. In the first year (i. e. 1939) the All India Spinners' Association purchased all the yarn and paid in cash; but later on, this agency declined to pay in cash on the plea that it was the duty of Government to dispose of all the products in basic schools and hence all the yarn produced had to be stored for some time. This led to deterioration in its quality and finally, when negotiations with the All India Spinners' Association and with other private agencies completely broke down in 1941-42, it was sent to the jails to be woven into mats and carpets. This was not an ideal step to take because the yarn spun by the children was of poor strength and prisoners in jails could not be expected to put it to the best possible use. There was, therefore, a great deal of wastage which led to the arousing of grave doubts about the financial aspects of Basic Education.

As a combined result of all these difficulties a crisis developed by 1941-42 and the whole future of the experiment hung in the balance. There was a move from one section to scrap it altogether while another section emphasised the promise of the Care-taker Government to maintain the *status quo* and argued that it would be unfair to close the basic schools in the absence of the Popular Ministry. At this crucial stage, the Director of Education suggested that the whole matter should be referred to the Central Advisory Board of Education for opinion. This suggestion was accepted and, on a request made by the Government of Bombay, the Central Advisory Board appointed a Committee under the Chairmanship of Sir John Sargent to enquire into the experiment of Basic Education in the State and to offer suggestions for its future working. The Committee appreciated the work done so far and recommended that the experiment should be continued and even expanded. The crisis was, therefore, happily got over and the experiment received a new lease of life.

The Report of the Special Committee was submitted in March, 1943, and Government passed orders on some of its recommendations in April, 1944. According to these, it was decided to continue the experiment for a further period of five years. The Advisory Board for Basic Education was reconstituted and an additional post was created for the Special Officer for Basic Education in B. E. S. Class I in June, 1944, for a period of five years in the first instance.* It was also decided to extend the basic course upto Standard VII in all the first grade schools in the compact areas. It had already been extended as far as Standard V by the end of the academic year 1943-44. The next year was, therefore, spent in consolidating and organising the earlier work and in 1945-46 the scheme was extended to Standard VI and to Standard VII in 1946-47. The pupils from the first grade basic schools, therefore, appeared for the Primary School Certificate Examination for the first time in April, 1947.

The following table shows the position of Basic Education during this period:

TABLE NO. 4 (1)
Progress of Basic Education (1939-1947)

	1939-40.	1943-44.	1946-47.
(1) Number of Basic Schools in the four Compact Areas.	55	54	55
(2) Number of Pupils in the above Schools.	1,589	3,191	8,054
(3) Number of isolated Basic Schools	30
(4) Number of Teachers working in the Basic Schools.	Not available	Not available	167
(5) Number of Basic Training Centres	4	3	3
(6) Number of Teachers trained in the above Centres.	179	90	89
(7) Number of Basic Schools maintained by private agencies.	5	1	1
(8) Number of Pupils in the above Schools.	Not available	Not available	70
(9) Total expenditure on Basic Education			
(a) Expenditure on Basic and Craft Education.	Rs. 1,48,093	Rs. 1,07,137	Rs. 3,44,571
(b) Expenditure on Building grant	Rs. 12,690	...	Rs. 15,000
(10) Quantity of yarn spun by the pupils (in lbs.).	3,820	2,186	Not available
(11) Income derived from the above yarn	Rs. 2,520	Most of the yarn was sent to Jails.†	Rs. 4,338

* This was later on converted into that of a Deputy Director of Education.

† From the yarn sent to jails between 1940-41 and 1944-45, about 18,000 chair-mats (18" × 18" each) were prepared by the Jail Department. These were used for seating candidates at the P. S. C. Examination in the State.

4 (4). *The Transitional Period (1947-55).*—In 1946, the Popular Ministry came back into office and the expansion and improvement of Basic Education again received a high priority in the educational reorganisation contemplated by Government.

Naturally, the first step taken by Government was to review the progress made during the first or the experimental period. Here the official reports showed that the results of the basic schools were generally satisfactory; especially in view of the difficulties against which they had to contend. The opposition to the scheme had now been considerably toned down and the public as well as the intelligentsia were prepared to acknowledge that the scheme of Basic Education was an improvement over the older tradition of purely literary type of primary schools. It was also the general consensus of opinion that the children of basic schools showed better traits in personality development and social adjustment; and the only doubt frequently expressed was that they might probably be inferior in academic attainments. But an investigation undertaken by Dr. V. V. Kamat at the request of Government cleared up this issue as well. Dr. Kamat devised attainment tests and administered them to the children of basic and non-basic schools in comparable areas in Maharashtra, Gujarat and Karnatak. The report submitted by him in October, 1947, showed clearly that children in basic schools had not suffered in their academic studies. Dr. Kamat observed, "I cannot, however, resist the temptation of drawing the general conclusion that the children of the several age and grade groups seem to attain the same level in whatever way they are taught provided they are given sufficient opportunities to learn in the right way. It is also possible that the craft work, which is more like children's play activity, keeps their minds more alert and removes some of the sense of drudgery which may probably be manifesting itself in the non-basic schools and thus in a shorter time the boys of basic schools pick up as much of the three R's as the boys in non-basic schools. The supposition, therefore, that the non-basic children may be found superior in the three R's and the basic children in manipulative ability is not borne out by these statistics."* Similar results were also obtained in other States where the experiment had been tried and hence Government declared that Basic Education had passed the experimental stage and that the future development of education at the primary stage should be on the pattern of Basic Education.†

Although the goal of official policy was thus declared to be the conversion of all primary schools into basic schools, it was not possible to realise this objective at once. Government, therefore, formulated a comprehensive *transitional* programme covering a period of about 10-15 years during which it would concentrate on the creation of such conditions as would facilitate the universal adoption of Basic Education in the third

* The Report in the original has been published in the Indian Journal of Educational Research, Vol. II.

† Press Note No. 8457/39987-F of 8-12-1949.

and the final period. This programme included the following measures amongst others:—

(a) Organization of *craft schools* which were defined as a half-way house between an ordinary primary school and a full-fledged basic school;

(b) Conversion of all training institutions for primary teachers to the basic pattern with a view to making the necessary number of trained teachers available for basic schools in as short a time as possible;

(c) Eliminating the difference between the curricula of primary and basic schools by a gradual enrichment of the syllabus taught in the ordinary primary schools and the reform of the teaching methods employed therein; and

(d) Reducing the cost of basic schools so that they would become less costly to maintain than the ordinary primary schools; or in the alternative, they would not at least become costlier than ordinary primary schools.

The attempts made and the results obtained under each of these four heads during the last eight years have been briefly described in the paragraphs that follow.

4 (5). *Craft Schools.*—As a first step towards the introduction of Basic Education on a large scale, Government decided to introduce the teaching of crafts in as many primary schools as possible. The main reason that led to the adoption of this expedient was the consideration that it was possible to train teachers for craft schools in Short Term Courses so that trained personnel could be supplied to craft schools at a more rapid pace than to basic schools proper. Secondly, it was also felt that a primary school in which a craft was taught as a subject would be a half-way house between an ordinary primary school on the one hand and a full-fledged basic school on the other. It was, therefore, thought that it would be a more practicable programme to convert an ordinary primary school into a craft school in the first instance and into a full-fledged basic school a little later, rather than to attempt the conversion of an ordinary primary school into a full-fledged basic school in one single step. It was, therefore, decided that all the first grade primary schools in the State i. e. those primary schools which taught all the standards from Standard I to Standard VII should be converted into craft schools as an experimental measure.

The crafts approved for this purpose included (1) kitchen-gardening leading to agriculture in the higher classes; (2) spinning (cotton or wool) leading to weaving in higher classes; and (3) paper work and cardboard modelling leading to woodwork in higher classes.

As a part of this programme, the old agricultural bias schools were immediately converted into basic schools and the teaching of the approved crafts was introduced in a large number of first grade primary schools.

The results are seen in the following table:—

TABLE NO. 4 (2)
Number of Craft Schools (1947-55)

Year.	Number of Schools converted into			Total.
	Spinning and Weaving Schools.	Kitchen, gardening and Agricultural Schools.	Cardboard Modelling and Carpentry Schools.	
1947-48	500	24	—	524
1948-49	1,214	46	55	1,315
1949-50	1,768	161	269	2,198
1950-51	2,129	262	283	2,674
1951-52	2,240	272	289	2,801
1952-53	2,240	272	289	2,801
1953-54	2,291	286	325	2,902
1954-55	2,238	283	295	2,816

It was necessary to train a very large number of teachers to staff the numerous primary schools that were thus converted into craft schools. For this purpose, Short-Term Courses were organised on a large scale. The courses in spinning and weaving were organised by the District School Boards themselves or through the agency of local khadi workers or of the All India Spinners' Association. The courses in agriculture were organised with the help of the Agricultural Department in the agricultural schools run by that Department or with the help of the well established private agricultural schools. Courses in wood-work were organised by private agencies in the first instance, but since 1949, primary teachers were deputed to the combined Centre for Industrial Training at Aundh organised by the Labour Ministry under the Central Government. Suitable syllabuses were framed for each of these courses which besides giving training in the theory and practice of the craft, included practical training in community activities as well. In addition to these, about 125 teachers were trained at Sevagram by the All India Spinners' Association for the purpose of organising spinning and weaving in primary schools. The following table shows the number of Short-Term



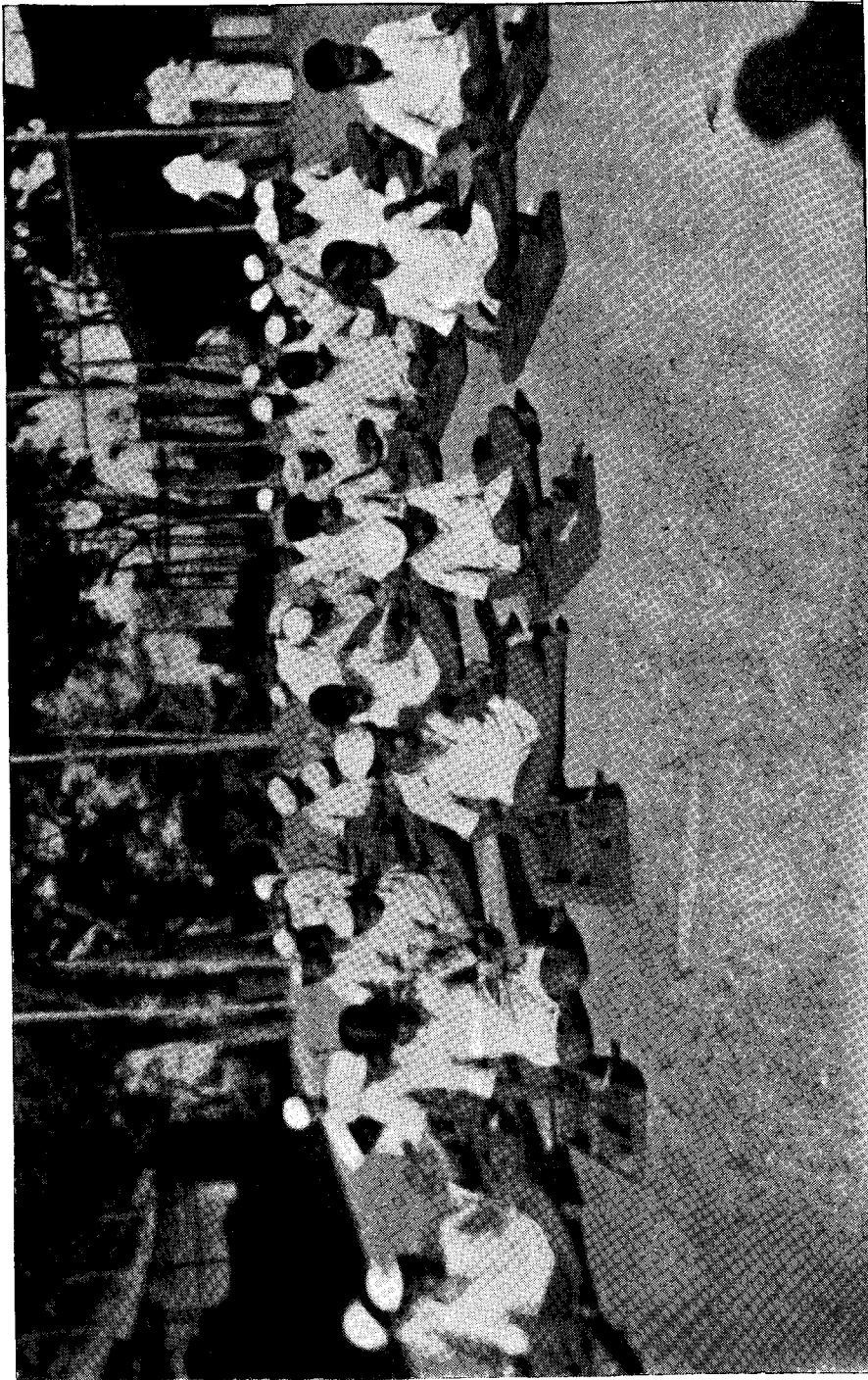
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Courses organised and the number of teachers trained in them since 1946-47:—

TABLE NO. 4 (3)
Training of Teachers for Craft Schools (1946-55)

Number of Short Term courses organised and teachers trained in -							
Year.		Spinning.	Weaving.	Kitchen- gardening and Agricul- ture.	Card board Modell- ing.	Carpentry or Woodwork.	Total.
1946-47							
Classes	...	10	6	3	19
Teachers	...	264	138	35	437
1947-48							
Classes	...	47	31	5	6	1	90
Teachers	...	1,712	764	149	259	22	2,906
1948-49							
Classes	...	14	11	4	3	1	33
Teachers	...	454	302	49	114	23	947
1949-50							
Classes	...	20	25	1	1	1	48
Teachers	...	519	312	135	6	217	1,189
1950-51							
Classes	...	19	14	1	...	1	35
Teachers	...	1,060	530	152	...	134	1,876
1951-52							
Classes	...	9	7	1	...	1	18
Teachers	...	269	311	201	8	127	916

Unfortunately, the experience of the craft schools has not been very satisfactory and their efficiency has fallen much short of the expectations originally entertained. Moreover, since all the training institutions in the State have now been converted to the basic pattern, there is no longer any dearth of properly trained teachers to staff the basic schools. It has, therefore, been decided that, in future, the ordinary primary schools should be converted to the basic pattern in one single step and that the half-way house of craft schools need no longer be adopted as a transitional measure. As a corollary to the above, it has also been decided to convert all the existing craft schools into full-fledged basic schools as soon as fully trained staff becomes available.



Moun Katai by Adivasi children

4 (6). *Conversion of Training Institutions for Primary Teachers to the Basic Pattern.*—A more effective method of universalizing Basic Education was to convert all training institutions for primary teachers to the basic pattern as early as possible. Obviously, this programme had to be divided into two stages. In the first stage, it was proposed to train graduates in a special course of Basic Education in order that suitable personnel to staff the training institutions for primary teachers may become available; and in the second stage, the training institutions for primary teachers were to be converted to the basic pattern by provision of staff trained in Basic Education, supply of adequate equipment for the teaching of crafts, etc. During the last eight years, great progress has been made in this direction and since 1955, all training institutions for primary teachers in the State have been converted to the basic pattern.

The programme may be said to have started in 1947 when a Graduates' Basic Training Class was attached to the Secondary Training College, Belgaum. English was adopted as the medium of instruction and graduates from all the three linguistic regions were admitted. The Principal of the Secondary Training College, Belgaum, also worked as the Principal of this Class; two members, who had considerable experience of Basic Education at the basic training centres and in the compact areas of basic schools worked as Lectures in Education; and three members who had received a full year's training at Sevagram worked as Assistant Lecturers. Besides these, there were three Craft Experts for spinning and weaving, cardboard modelling and wood-work. As there was no primary practising school attached to this Class, the trainees were sent to the respective compact areas for practical work for a period of about two months.

As a result of this year's experience of conducting the Class for graduates, it was felt that it would be better to admit only trained graduates for further training in Basic Education and to impart such training in the regional languages at centres to which primary practising schools were attached and which were situated in the rural areas of the three linguistic regions. Accordingly, three regional centres were established in June 1948. The Centre for Maharashtra was established at Bordi, a village with a population of 4,000 in the Thana District*; but the centres for Gujarat and Karnatak had to be located at Ahmedabad and Dharwar respectively, for want of suitable accommodation and other amenities in rural areas. The Centre at Ahmedabad was transferred to Dabka, a small village in the Baroda District in 1951-52 and thence to Rajpipla in 1953-54. but the Karnatak Centre still continues to function at Dharwar. The number of Urdu graduates to be trained in Basic Education was so very small that it was decided, on financial grounds, to depute Urdu-knowing graduate teachers to Jamia Millia Islamia, Delhi, for training in Basic Education.

* This was shifted to Dhulia in 1953-54.

The following table shows the number of teachers trained annually in the Graduates' Basic Training Centres since 1948-49:—

TABLE No. 4 (4)
Graduates trained in Basic Education (1948-55)

Year.	Number of teachers trained for			Total.
	Gujarati Schools.	Marathi Schools.	Kannada Schools.	
1948-49	18	32	19	69
1949-50	27	37	28	92
1950-51	31	41	30	102
1951-52	31	41	26	98
1952-53	23	42	23	88
1953-54	17	32	20	69
1954-55	31	56	41	128

In the earlier years, it was very difficult to get an adequate number of students for these Centres, although no fees were charged in them. This was due partly to the fact that this course began after the B.T. Examination, and partly to the absence of sufficient opportunities of employment. In 1953-54, therefore, the training imparted in these Centres was made equivalent to the B.T. Examination by admission of fresh graduates. Fees equivalent to those charged in B.T. Colleges were also levied, although a number of stipends and free-studentships were instituted. Moreover, it was laid down that persons holding the Diploma in Basic Education granted by these Centres should be appointed on the staff of training institutions for primary teachers in a prescribed proportion* and Government declared that persons trained in these Centres shall be deemed to be equivalent to graduates with B.T. or B.Ed. Degrees for purposes of pay and that they shall be given preference while recruiting trained teachers for the Education Department. As a result of these orders the Centres have gained in popularity and, in spite of the fees charged, the rush to these institutions is considerable at present and the need to expand them is being keenly felt.

When the Graduates' Basic Training Centres admitted trained teachers only, the main object of their syllabus was to equip the trainees in the special principles of Basic Education and to give them a working mastery over a main and a subsidiary craft. Since they have begun to admit ordinary graduates, the content of their syllabus has been greatly changed. They now teach all the subjects that are taught in the university courses for the B.T. or B.Ed. Examinations and, in addition also impart

* Under the existing orders, at least one person holding the Diploma in Basic Education must be appointed for each division of a primary training college.

instruction in the principles of Basic Education and give practical training in a craft. The course, therefore, is very strenuous. Attempts are now being made to secure recognition of the universities to these Centres or, in the alternative, to secure equivalence for the Diploma in Basic Education with the B.T. and the B.Ed. Degrees.

As soon as trained graduates to staff the training institutions for primary teachers became available, Government began to push ahead the scheme of converting all training colleges for primary teachers to the basic pattern. From 1939-40 to 1948-49, the number of basic training centres for primary teachers had remained stationary at 3. But in 1949-50, five additional institutions were converted to the basic pattern, and the total number of the institutions so converted was raised to 13 in 1950-51, to 17 in 1951-52 and to 21 in 1952-53. It fell down to 20 in 1953-54 (due to the closure of the Training College at Bijapur); but in 1954-55, a bold step was taken and all training institutions for primary teachers were converted to the basic pattern.

This radical reform has naturally implied a complete overhaul of the curriculum of these training institutions. As stated earlier, the syllabus of the first basic training centres was spread over one year only, partly because only first year trained (or matriculate) teachers were admitted to these institutions and partly because the experiment was then being worked in the lower standards only. As Basic Education was extended to the higher standards and the need to admit untrained teachers began to arise, the period of one year was found to be inadequate. Consequently the period of training in Basic Education was extended to two years and a new syllabus was drawn up for Basic Training Institutions for primary teachers in 1949. It is divided under six heads, *viz.* (1) Training in Health and Community Life; (2) Training in Craft; (3) Training in Arts; (4) Training in Teaching Craft; (5) Academic Learning; and (6) Physical Education.

This syllabus which gives a new orientation to the work of the training institution for primary teachers has several significant features. Firstly, it places the greatest emphasis on community life because it is necessary to give the trainees a clear understanding of the social objectives of education and the ideal of citizenship inherent in it. Residence in the hostels is, therefore, made compulsory with a view to giving the trainees a proper idea and experience of community living based on co-operation. Similarly, emphasis is placed on the organisation of *safai* and recreational programmes and social work camps in villages. Secondly, the syllabus in the craft has now been drawn up in much greater detail. Eighteen periods of forty minutes each per week are to be devoted for training in craft. Each trainee is required to take one main craft which may be either spinning and weaving, kitchen-gardening and agriculture or cardboard modelling and wood-work to which twelve periods would be devoted in the first year and eighteen in the second and any two auxiliary crafts out of spinning, kitchen-gardening elementary paper and cardboard modelling and needle-work (in women's institutions) to which six periods per week would be devoted in the first year. A detailed syllabus giving, at each stage, the processes to be learnt, the standard

of attainment in each process and the knowledge correlated in each process has been worked out for each craft. Thirdly, the syllabus makes a new approach to the teaching of history. It is no longer to be studied as an account of battles and dynasties; on the other hand, emphasis is now placed on the cultural growth of man from primitive to modern times and on the social, cultural, economic and religious developments which have a bearing on the present social and political conditions of the world in general and of India in particular. Fourthly, the syllabus in the theory and practice of education emphasises the ideology of Basic Education and the methods of work which have to be adopted in a basic school. Lastly, the syllabus in Physical Education, music and drawing is framed with a view to enabling the teacher to organise social and recreational activities of a basic school on proper lines.

The experience of the practical working of this syllabus has been very encouraging. Several difficulties, however, are being experienced in private training institutions for primary teachers because many of them do not have the resources for working out this syllabus in the proper spirit. The problem is, therefore, under the consideration of Government at present and has been referred to a special committee.*

4 (7). *Elimination of the difference between the Curricula for Primary and Basic Schools.*—As a still further step in the programme of converting all primary schools to the basic pattern, it was decided to minimise the existing differences between the curricula of primary and basic schools. In 1946-47, the position was that the primary schools followed a purely academic syllabus based on the teaching of subjects through books while the basic schools followed an entirely different syllabus based on activities. The gulf between these two was so wide that it would have been impossible to make the transition from one to the other in a single step. It was, therefore, considered desirable to bridge over this gulf as largely as possible so that the ultimate transition from the academic to the basic pattern would present no insuperable difficulties.

Reference has already been made to the first syllabus for basic schools which was adopted in 1939 and to the practical difficulties that arose in the early years of its working. These difficulties were remedied from time to time in the light of the experience gained. For example, the extreme emphasis on correlation was reduced and it was laid down that only those topics which could be correlated *naturally* with the craft or with the social or physical environment should be taught on the principle of correlated teaching. This broadening of outlook helped the teachers a good deal and the work in basic schools became more natural and practical. Similarly, in the early years of the experiment, excursions to different localities in the village and practical civic training such as village *safai* formed the main social activities; but as these did not give enough opportunity for teaching all topics, a social activity programme for the whole year was drawn up. It consisted of the celebration of festivals, attendance at fairs and observance of special days such as Malaria day,

* For details, see Chapter VII.

the library day, the tree plantation day, the parents' day, etc. Similar programmes were also arranged on occasions offered by natural phenomena such as an eclipse, a change in seasons, floods, etc. In addition to these, the children were regularly given hygienic drill every day and were required to do village *safai* every week. In short, the school work was divided into different activity programmes and children were made to talk, read and write, and compute in connection with them. Thus the work in language and arithmetic was correlated with craftwork and that in science, with craft. Similarly, the work in nature-study and geography was correlated with kitchen-gardening and that in history and civics with the social activities organised in the schools. The Department also published a hand-book of activities for basic schools for the guidance of teachers. This was found to be of great use in improving the methods of teaching in basic schools.

Modifications of this type improved the efficiency of the basic schools. But in spite of them, it was felt that a total revision of the syllabus for basic schools was necessary. After taking into consideration the experience gained during the preceding ten years, therefore, the syllabus for basic schools was entirely recast in 1949.

This new syllabus retained the main features of the earlier syllabus, viz. the emphasis on activities rather than on the teaching of books, the adoption of correlated teaching instead of instruction in isolated subjects, elasticity in the arrangements of programmes and activities to suit local conditions etc. But it marked a further stage in progress in two directions: (1) the emphasis on health, hygiene and *safai* and (2) the new approach to the teaching of social studies and general science. In the activities prescribed under the head "health, hygiene and *safai*" the principal aim was to develop the right attitude required for a clean and healthy life. Activities were to be correlated with the life of the child at school and home and also with the social environment. Every attempt was to be made to make the children realise the importance of self-help in all matters of daily life and of disciplined activities and the joy and happiness arising out of them. The approach to hygiene was thus quite different from that in the syllabus of the old primary schools where it was merely a subject studied through books. In the new syllabus, special care was taken to see that children actually carried out the various activities prescribed and were side by side given the necessary scientific knowledge which would enable them to conduct those activities with understanding and sympathy.

The approach to social studies and general science also was essentially practical and psychological. The whole syllabus for social studies was based on the natural interests of children and the knowledge to be imparted was woven around them. No formal instruction in history or geography was to be given at the early stages. In the beginning, History was to be taught through interesting stories from the life of primitive man, from the epics, from the folklore, etc. and a systematic knowledge

of history as the background of our present economic, social and cultural life was to be built up gradually. In the same way, the teaching of general science was also closely related to the immediate environment of the child. All activities in connection with the programme of kitchen-gardening, *safai*, health and craft-work provide plenty of opportunities for teaching general science. Children were, therefore, to be taken out frequently on excursions to study the life around them so that their natural curiosity would be stimulated and they would themselves ask for knowledge essentially scientific in character. Such occasions were to be fully utilised for giving instruction in general science so that the child might have an intelligent understanding of the life around him and of the laws that govern it.

Another important feature of the new syllabus was the reduction in the time devoted to craft. In the original syllabus recommended by the Zakir Hussain Committee, three hours and twenty minutes per day were devoted to the craft. In later years, this time was gradually reduced and in the new syllabus, only ten hours per week are devoted to craft-work. It is especially stressed that the ten hours for craft work should be for craft alone and that the time given to working out the correlations of craft with other subjects should be considered separately. In spite of this provision, it must be admitted that the time allotted to the craft under the present syllabus is much less than what was originally contemplated. It is felt, however, that in spite of this reduction of time, the production would easily reach the standard where craft-work would pay its way, if the teaching of craft is conducted on systematic lines.

This syllabus was introduced in all the basic schools in 1950-51. In the meanwhile, the syllabus of the ordinary primary schools was also revised in 1947-48 and several activities were introduced in it.* The two syllabuses, therefore, were now much closer together than in the past. But a still further step was taken in 1955 when the syllabuses of both the primary and basic schools were again revised *in toto*. Under the new plan, a separate syllabus for craft work† only was prescribed for the basic schools and in all other matters, both the primary and basic schools were given a common syllabus to work upon. Thus both primary and basic schools now have a common syllabus for academic subjects. Owing to the conversion of all training institutions to the basic pattern both of them will also be staffed by teachers who have received an identical training and hence the methods of teaching adopted in both the types of schools would be almost identical. Moreover, both the schools have the same syllabus for activities and community life. It is, therefore, obvious that the difference between the two courses is now reduced to the minimum and that the next step of converting the primary schools to the basic pattern can be conveniently taken as soon as the financial

* For details see Chapter II, Section 20.

† The only difference between the syllabus of 1955 and that of 1949 described above, in so far as craft-work is concerned is that the standards of attainment have been somewhat reduced in the former.

resources for providing the equipment required for the teaching of craft become available.

4 (8). *Reduction of the difference in the Cost of an Ordinary Primary School and a Basic School.*—When the scheme of Basic Education was first introduced, the theoretical view of the problem was that a basic school would, under certain conditions, become self-supporting. The Central Advisory Board of Education, which accepted this scheme, did not emphasise this financial aspect. It recommended the educational advantages of Basic Education and was of opinion that the basic schools would, at the most, pay for the recurring expenditure incurred on craft work. When a review of the working of basic schools in the State was taken in 1948-49, it was found that the original hopes about the financial aspects of Basic Education were not being realised in practice. The basic schools did not earn enough to pay even a substantial part of their expenditure, to say nothing of self-support. On the other hand, it was also discovered that the basic schools were costlier than the ordinary primary schools.* This implied that the expansion of Basic Education would be held up on financial grounds alone. Government, therefore, decided to have the problem closely examined and to eliminate the difference in the cost of an ordinary primary school and a basic school as far as possible.

A study of the relevant factors which influence the cost of education in basic schools showed that the extra cost per pupil incurred in a basic school was due to three main factors: (1) the staffing of basic schools on principles different from those adopted for the ordinary primary schools; (2) the provision of special supervisory staff for basic schools; and (3) the non-recurring and recurring expenditure incurred for purposes of craft-teaching. Attempts were, therefore, made to eliminate these factors so that the cost per child in a basic school would not at least be more than that in an ordinary primary school.

Regarding the first of these three factors, it may be stated that, when the experiment was started, it was decided to appoint one teacher for every 30 pupils in a basic school while one teacher was appointed for every 40 pupils in an ordinary primary school. This differentiation usually resulted in a larger staff being appointed for basic schools with the result that the cost per child necessarily amounted higher. It has, therefore, been decided now to staff both the primary and the basic schools on the same general principles so that this factor would be eliminated altogether.†

Regarding the second factor, reference has already been made to the extra supervisory staff provided for basic schools (they had two supervising officers for about 20 schools while the ordinary primary schools had

*The cost per capita in basic schools is higher than that in ordinary schools by Rs. 5 in the Dharwar District, Rs. 7 in the Surat District and about Rs. 13 in the East Khandesh District and by about Rs. 9 in the North Satara District. Report of the Director of Education, Bombay, 1951-52, p. 60.

† Some difference on account of this factor will still be left because the shift system which has been introduced in Standards I and II of the ordinary primary schools has not been extended so far to the basic schools.

one supervising officer for about 55 schools). It has, therefore, been decided to eliminate this factor also and to provide supervising staff for both basic and ordinary primary schools on the same general principles. For this purpose, persons trained in the graduates' basic training centres are being preferentially recruited to the cadre of the Assistant Deputy Educational Inspector. Secondly, Short Term Training Courses in Basic Education have also been organised for those Assistant Deputy Educational Inspectors who have not received formal training in Basic Education. Thirdly, short intensive courses in Basic Education have also been organised for Administrative Officers and Deputy Educational Inspectors. In this way the whole inspecting staff of the Department has been given a bias towards Basic Education and it is, therefore, hoped that no extra cost would be involved in future on account of the supervision of basic schools.*

Regarding the third factor, it was discovered that the main difficulty was to dispose off the articles produced by the children. For this purpose, Government laid down the following policy after examining the problem carefully from every point of view:—

“(a) A Joint Committee consisting of the Assistant Deputy Educational Inspector for Craft work, the Head Master and a non-official nominated by the Administrative Officer shall scrutinise and approve after such modification as may be necessary a schedule of prices for all articles manufactured at the Basic School.

(b) The manufactured products should be sold in the first instance to the children in the school at the scheduled rate less 25 per cent. or cost of material plus labour charges whichever is more—the quantity sold to each child being limited to the amount needed for its personal use.

(c) Any surplus may then be sold to teachers at the scheduled rate less 10 per cent. and subject to all other conditions specified in (b) above.

(d) Any surplus still remaining shall be disposed off at scheduled rates in the open market.

(e) The provision in (a) to (d) above will not apply to Agricultural or Kitchen-garden produce which should be sold at market rates except vegetables and fruits used for community meals which should be allowed free but the cost debited to school expenses.

(f) The Joint Committee mentioned in (a) above will generally supervise and check all these transactions. Transactions below the prices mentioned above can only be made with the permission of the Assistant Deputy Educational Inspector.”†

*The only special staff for supervision of basic schools that now remains includes five Craft Organisers three of whom are attached to the graduates' basic training centres and two to the office of the Director of Education.

† G. R., E. D., No. 7806 of 13-4-1950.

This policy has been yielding better results than in the past. The following table shows the income realised from the production of the basic schools in compact areas (including the basic training centres):—

TABLE No. 4 (5)

Income Realised from Basic Schools in Compact Areas (including the Basic Training Centres) (1946-55)

Year.	Expenditure on Raw Materials.	Income Realised.	Profit.
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
1946-47	2,510	4,338	1,828
1947-48	3,355	5,823	2,468
1948-49	6,130	8,605	2,475
1949-50	9,243	13,896	4,653
1950-51	7,534	11,996	4,462
1951-52	10,027	15,252	5,225
1952-53	27,856	40,617	12,761
1953-54	26,169	49,166	22,997
1954-55	23,046	39,330	16,284

It will be seen from the above table that the sale of articles produced by the pupils of basic schools has not only paid for all the recurring expenditure incurred on raw materials, but has also left over a fairly large amount of profit. It is, therefore, hoped that, as the efficiency of the basic schools improves, it may be possible to meet the extra expenditure (recurring as well as non-recurring) incurred on craft-work from the sale of the articles produced by pupils.

The three-fold efforts described above which were made by Government to reduce the cost per pupil in basic schools were very successful. In 1951-52, the cost per pupil in an ordinary primary school was Rs. 27.1 while the cost per pupil of a basic school in the same area was Rs. 33.6. In 1953-54, however, the cost per pupil in an ordinary primary school rose to Rs. 28.4, while that in the basic school came down to Rs. 29.1 per pupil. It has, therefore, been already possible to reduce the cost per pupil in a basic school very considerably and it is hoped that the basic schools would cease to be costlier than the ordinary primary schools in the near future.

4 (9). *Expenditure on Basic Education.*—The following table shows the expenditure incurred on Basic Education from 1947-48:—

TABLE No. 4 (6)

Expenditure on Basic Education (1947-55)

Year.	Expenditure on Basic and Craft Education.	Expenditure on Building grant.
	Rs	Rs.
1947-48	... 16,30,404	55,000
1948-49	... 18,49,343	54,859
1949-50	... 27,34,506	54,978
1950-51	... 26,22,678	18,200
1951-52	... 22,25,272	3,768
1952-53	... 19,12,651	15,67,734
1953-54	... 11,06,740	60,23,655
1954-55	... 13,45,817	60,99,976

Two features of the above table deserve notice. In the first place, it will be seen that, owing to the efforts made by Government to reduce the difference in the cost between primary and basic schools, the total expenditure on Basic Education has materially *decreased* during the last four years in spite of the *increase* in the number of basic and craft schools. In 1949-50, there were only 55 basic schools in the State with an enrolment of 10,099 pupils and no craft schools at all; but the total expenditure on Basic Education was about Rs. 27.34 lakhs. In 1954-55, the number of basic schools increased to 167 with an enrolment of 30,497 pupils* and there were as many as 2,816 craft schools. Yet the total expenditure on basic and Craft Education came to Rs. 13.45 lakhs only. Secondly, the large expenditure incurred on buildings for basic schools also deserves notice. This is a part of the programme of providing good buildings to primary schools which has been undertaken by Government and has already been described in Chapter III. It must be stated here, however, that in providing new buildings to primary schools, the requirements of basic and craft schools are given prior consideration.

4 (10). *Conclusion.*—It will be seen from the foregoing review that, since 1947-48, Government have taken several measures for the universal adoption of Basic Education. The whole inspecting staff has been trained in the basic ideology; all training institutions for primary teachers have been converted to the basic pattern so that, in a few years, all the primary

* Besides these, there are 123 primary schools with 18,446 pupils in the process of conversion to the basic pattern.

teachers would be qualified to work in basic schools; the difference between the curriculum of the basic and primary schools has been reduced to the minimum and the factors leading to an increase in the cost of basic schools have been eliminated almost completely. Further advance, therefore, will be made on the following two lines:—

(1) Increasing the number of full-fledged basic schools by converting ordinary primary schools directly to the basic pattern; and

(2) Converting the existing craft schools into basic schools as soon as the teaching of the craft is sufficiently consolidated.

The main difficulties that now hinder progress are mainly financial. The basic schools need larger buildings and hence more expenditure on the provision of suitable buildings is essential if the extension of Basic Education is to be attempted on an appreciable scale. Secondly, a large non-recurring expenditure would also be required to provide the equipment necessary for the teaching of craft in all the primary schools. Thirdly, the present decision of not extending the shift system to basic schools also presents a financial problem because the conversion of a primary school to the basic pattern under this condition would necessarily involve additional expenditure on staff. Government, however, is very anxious to convert all the primary schools to the basic pattern as early as possible and steps are, therefore, being taken to overcome the above difficulties by provision of larger educational grants from the State exchequer. In the ultimate analysis the conversion of the present primary schools to the basic pattern means the provision of better buildings, better equipment, better methods of teaching and better teachers for Primary Education—which is the only education that an average citizen of the country would ever receive—and no cost can really be considered as too great for the purpose.

CHAPTER V

SECONDARY EDUCATION

5 (1). *Government Policy in respect of Secondary Education.*—The relationship of Government to Secondary Education has been entirely different from that to Primary Education. Government has always held the view that Primary Education is more important than Secondary and that it has a prior claim upon the State funds allocated to Education. Consequently, primary schools have been established mainly under the direct control of the Department or local bodies and private enterprise has been assigned a minor role in the provision of primary schools. Similarly, Primary Education has also been mainly supported by public funds, i.e., by grants from State funds and contributions by local bodies. On the other hand, secondary schools have been mostly conducted by private enterprise and both Government and the local bodies have been

content to conduct only a small number of secondary schools. Moreover, Secondary Education has been mainly supported by private funds, i.e. by fees, endowments, and donations and contributions from the public. These fundamental differences between the relationship of Government to Primary and Secondary Education inevitably result in making the history of Secondary Education in this State markedly different from that of Primary Education which was narrated in Chapter III.

5 (2). *Definition of Secondary Education.*—The definition of Secondary Education has passed through three different stages.

In the first stage, which extended upto 1875-76, the expressions “secondary schools” or “Secondary Education” were practically unknown. The schools of this period which corresponded to the modern secondary schools were broadly described as “English schools” on account of the fact that they included the study of English as a very important subject of their curriculum. In this respect, they were distinguished from the “vernacular schools” which gave instruction through a modern Indian language and which taught no English.

In the second stage which begins by about 1875-76, the expressions “Secondary Education” and “secondary schools” came gradually into vogue. But it was the Indian Education Commission, 1882, which made these expressions popular for the first time and brought them into universal use. After 1881-82, therefore, the old “English schools” began to be described as “secondary schools” and their system came to be described as “Secondary Education”. This practice continued till 1946-47 though, in fact, instruction through English was being gradually abandoned since the third decade of this century.

In the third stage which begins after the attainment of Independence, the old connection between Secondary Education and the teaching of English was done away with, and Secondary Education is now regarded as “adolescent education.” In the proposed Grant-in-Aid Code, therefore, secondary schools are defined as those “which impart education, academic or partly academic and partly vocational, suitable for pupils in the stage of adolescence.”

It may, therefore, be said that the teaching of English as a language dominated the whole field of Secondary Education throughout the British rule and that it was only after the attainment of Independence that its proper scope and function were realised. The secondary schools of today are, therefore, no longer bound by the narrow aim of teaching English. On the other hand, they are now trying to provide diversified courses suited to the capacities and aptitudes of adolescent boys and girls.

5 (3). *Development of English Schools prior to 1855.*—On 29th January, 1815, the European inhabitants of the City of Bombay established the Bombay Education Society with the primary object of educating European and Anglo-Indian children. But from the very beginning, the Society decided to admit Indian children to its schools without making religious education compulsory. Consequently, several Hindu, Muslim,

and Parsi children attended the schools of the Society in order to learn the English language which was "in great degree necessary at Bombay to qualify themselves for many situations" and which could not be learnt in any other schools. Until 1818, therefore, the schools for the Anglo-Indian and European children were the main, if not the exclusive, source from which Indian children could receive education in English.*

In 1818, the Society took another step forward for the education of Indian children and opened three separate English schools for them in Bombay City—one in Fort, one in Girgaum, and one in Mazgaon. In 1820, it established a separate committee to look after the education of Indian children. As stated already in Chapter I, this committee became an independent society in 1822 and came to be known as the Bombay Native Education Society from 1827. It was the principal agency for the spread of education among Indian children from 1820 to 1840. But as its policy was to spread education through the modern Indian languages, it did not encourage the expansion of English schools. In 1840, therefore, there were only four English schools under the control of the Society—in Bombay, Panvel, Thana, and Poona.

In 1840, the Board of Education was constituted and in 1843, Sir Erskine Perry, the Chief Justice of the Bombay High Court, was appointed as its President. He held this post till 1852 and being a great enthusiast for the spread of English education, he strove hard to increase the number of English schools and to establish a good English school in every district. This policy was also supported by the increasing popular demand for English education and by the decision of the Government of India to adopt English as the medium of instruction in higher education and also to use it as a language of Government. Between 1842 and 1855, therefore, the number of English schools in the State increased rapidly. In 1855, there were 13 English schools in the State, *viz.*, Elphinstone High School, Bombay (1820) and English Schools at Thana (1823); Poona (1833); Surat (1842); Ratnagiri (1845); Ahmedabad (1846); Ahmednagar (1848); Dharwar (1848); Broach (1849); Satara (1852); Rajkot (1853); Dhulia (1853); and Sholapur (1854).†

It must be pointed out that the English schools of this period were materially different from the secondary schools of to-day. Their principal object was to teach English as a language and to spread some knowledge of Western science and literature. They used English as the only medium of instruction throughout their course and, in the early years, did not provide for the teaching of any modern Indian language, even as a subject. Later on, the study of these languages was introduced to some extent, but even in teaching them, English was used as the medium of

* Some attempts to teach Portuguese and English had been made even before 1815 but their account has been omitted here on the ground that it is beyond the scope of this Review. For details, *Vide*, N. N. Law: Promotion of Learning in India by Early European Settlers.

† The School at Panvel was closed in 1842 and, in 1854-55, there were two Branch Schools in Bombay and also a Branch School at Poona. The Thana School was closed for a time and re-established in 1851.

instruction. There was no Matriculation Examination and hence the upper end of the English School Course was not very clearly marked.* Similarly, no definite standard of eligibility for admission to English schools was also prescribed. In other words, the course of the English schools lacked a clear demarcation at both ends was not properly correlated with that in the Vernacular Schools.

5 (4). *Development of English Schools (1855-71).*—With the creation of the Education Department, the English schools in the State began to be organised on sounder lines and increased in numbers. Between 1855 and 1871, Howard, Grant and Peile introduced several reforms which brought about marked qualitative and quantitative changes in the system of English schools.

The first major reform carried out during this period was to define the upper end of the English School Course and to separate it clearly from collegiate education. The initial step in this direction was taken in 1859 when the University of Bombay held the first Matriculation Examination. This examination was really an entrance examination to the University. But in the absence of an alternative, it automatically became the leaving examination of the English schools. Similarly, the Matriculation Examination also became, within a few years, the only entrance examination to the University. Since 1859, all students who had passed the Matriculation Examination were necessarily admitted to the colleges. But the old practice of holding entrance examinations continued for a few years and students who had passed the entrance examinations held by the college authorities were also admitted to colleges till 1865-66. In that year, Grant directed that all entrance examinations should be abolished and that no unmatriculated student should be admitted to a college under any circumstances.† With these orders, the Matriculation Examination began to serve a three-fold purpose, *viz.*

- (1) as a leaving examination for the English schools.
- (2) as an entrance examination to the University, and
- (3) as a dividing line between school education on the one hand and collegiate education on the other.

Similarly, it was decided to prescribe a minimum standard for admission to the English schools and thereby to connect them with the vernacular schools. Howard tried to introduce such a standard but was not quite successful. Grant prescribed an examination, which was almost equivalent to the examination at the end of Vernacular Standard IV, for admission to the English schools.‡ But it was Peile who finalised the reform by making it a rule that no student who had not passed Vernacular Standard IV should be admitted to an English school. Thus the secondary course was provided with a clear lower limit. From 1870-71, therefore, the English or secondary schools began to occupy a definite

* The Elphinstone Institution which functioned at the collegiate level during this period held Entrance Examinations which may be regarded as the precursor of the Matriculation.

† Letter No. 1161 of 11th November, 1865.

‡ Report of the Director of Public Instruction, Bombay, 1865-66, pp. 188-89.

place in the general system of education—a place which began after Vernacular Standard IV and ended with the Matriculation Examination.

The next step in the reorganization of English schools carried out during this period was to divide their course in a number of fixed standards. In 1865-66, when the first Grant-in-Aid Code was published by Grant, he divided the entire course of English schools in six standards, the sixth standard corresponding to the Matriculation. In 1870-71, the number of standards was increased to seven by Peile. Of these, Standards I-III were regarded as middle school standards and Standards IV-VII were regarded as high school standards. This arrangement, it may be pointed out, was introduced in 1870-71 and continued unchanged till 1946-47.

The third step in the reorganization was to evolve three different types of English schools to serve the needs and requirements of different localities or groups of students. These were (a) high schools, (b) Anglo-Vernacular schools of the first grade, and (c) Anglo-Vernacular schools of the second grade.

(a) *High Schools*.—It has to be remembered that the expression “high school” does not occur prior to 1855 and that even the Despatch of 1854 does not refer to it. It was Howard who first introduced the expression and defined the high schools as “English schools which taught upto the Matriculation Examination.” He wanted these institutions to correspond to the Grammar schools and the public schools in England. Grant desired that they should not merely be “manufactories of Matriculation students” and hoped that they would develop a classical and scholarly tradition. “The High Schools”, he wrote “in order to play their part, require to be characterised by a literary and classical spirit, such as we find in the great public schools in England. They should send up boys to the Colleges not only just able to pass the University Entrance Examination, but also imbued with a fair amount of English Literature, and thoroughly grounded in the rudiments of Sanskrit or Latin”.* In spite of these hopes, however, the one dominating objective of the High Schools was to give their students a thorough grounding in English and to prepare them for admission to the University. They used English as the medium of instruction throughout their course and as stated already, this was spread over four years, Standards IV-VII.†

(b) *Anglo-Vernacular Schools of the First Grade*.—The English schools which did not teach the whole course upto the Matriculation were described as “Superior Anglo-Vernacular Schools” or A. V. Schools of the first grade. Their main object was to turn out clerks and their curriculum was arranged accordingly. At the end of this course, wrote Howard, “a boy should write a good and rapid hand in English, be quick at practical arithmetic, and be able to read English aloud intelligibly, write correctly from dictation, draft an English letter on ordinary business matters,

* Report of the Director of Public Instruction, Bombay, 1865-66, p. 20.

† In order to obtain students for its lowest class, every high school included an Anglo-Vernacular school or was associated with some A. V. Schools in the locality. Until 1881-82, every high school which included an A. V. School was counted as two institutions for purposes of statistics. But thereafter, it began to be counted as one institution even though it included all Standards from I to VII; but the students reading in Standards I-III were shown as studying in “middle stage”.

and translate from easy English into his own language orally as well as on paper. Further, he should have learnt the first elements of Geometry and a little Algebra, be able to point out any important place on a map, be acquainted with the most common uses of a terrestrial globe and know the leading facts of Indian and English History, and the most rudimentary truths of Physics.”* Grant revised the curriculum of these schools still further so that they came to consist of five standards which corresponded with the first five standards of the English School Course. Consequently, these schools now performed a double function: (1) to prepare clerks for employment under Government and (2) to prepare students for admission to high schools.

They first taught English as a subject and then used it as a medium of instruction; but there was no definite rule as to the stage when English should be used as a medium of instruction and hence this decision mostly depended upon individual headmasters.

After completing the course in these schools, it was open to a student either to proceed to a high school for further studies or to appear for the Public Service Examination (1st Class) and be a clerk in an English office.

(c) *Anglo-Vernacular Schools of the Second Grade*.—The Anglo-Vernacular schools which taught only the first three standards of the English School Course were designated as “Inferior Anglo-Vernacular Schools” and a little later, they came to be known as Anglo-Vernacular Schools of the second grade. These were broadly of two types. The first type included independent institutions which restricted their objective to preparation of students for the high schools. They were, therefore, generally described as “high school feeders.” The second type included schools whose main object was to teach the Vernacular Course but which also provided for the teaching of English to such students as desired it. These would, therefore, be more properly described as “vernacular schools with provision for teaching English in the higher standards.” These institutions were first started in the Satara District in 1852-53‡ but they soon became popular and increased in numbers, partly because they could be started even in small and out-of-the-way places and partly because the fees charged in them were lower than in other types of English schools. But the Department was not satisfied with their efficiency. For example, Grant observed that, in these schools, “a small class, sometimes of six, five, or even three boys was allowed to learn a little English. This they could only do most imperfectly, generally imbibing faults of accent and idiom from their teacher, which proved afterwards a real obstacle to their ever acquiring the language properly.”‡ Grant, therefore, began charging higher fees in these schools. It led to a fall in their numbers and there was also a good deal of agitation against the increase of fees. But the Department remained firm and Peile directed that the A. V. Schools of the second grade should only be started if (1) there was a reasonable prospect of permanency, (2) if a good teacher of English was available,

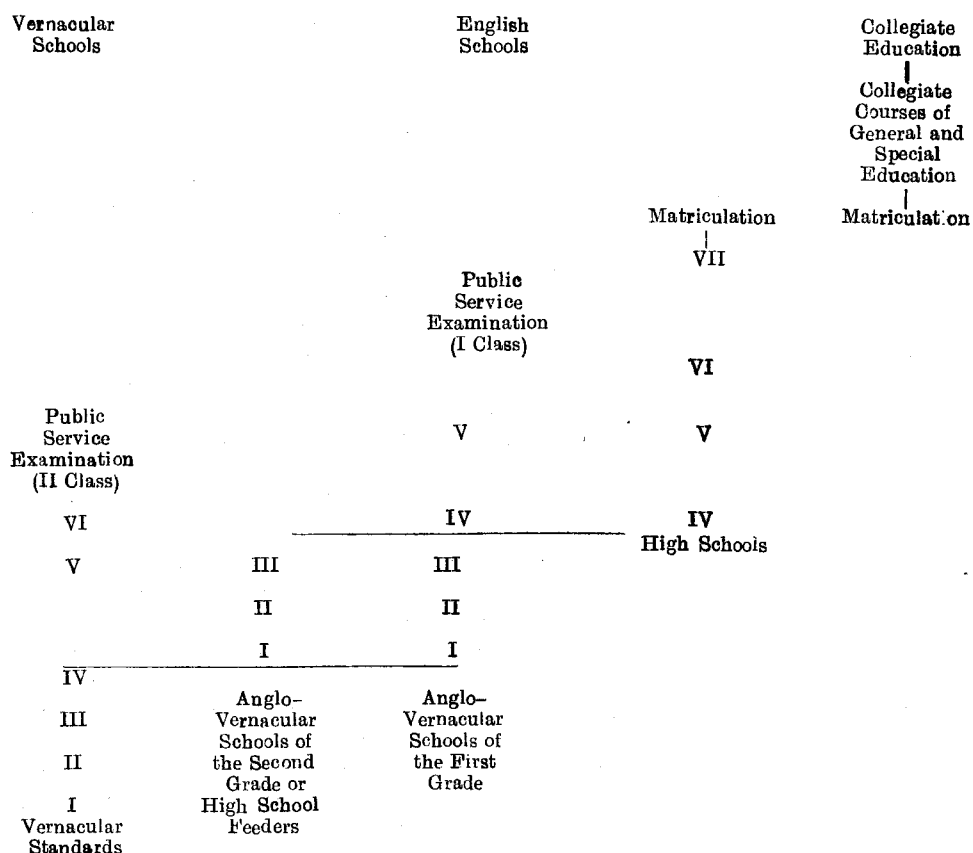
* Report of the Director of Public Instruction, Bombay, 1862-63, pp. 146-47.

† Report of the Board of Education, Bombay, 1852-53, p. 11.

‡ Report of the Director of Public Instruction, Bombay, 1867-68, p. 39.

and (3) if the students studying English in the School agreed to contribute, in the form of fees, a sum equivalent to the additional salary paid to a qualified teacher of English.* But in spite of all these precautions, the success of these schools was far from certain.

As described in Chapter III, the vernacular schools were also completely reorganised during this period. In 1855, they had an ambitious syllabus and the number of their standards varied from VI to X. But since 1857, attempts were made to simplify their curriculum and in 1865-66, the entire vernacular course was reduced to four years only and was spread over four standards. In 1866-67, the number of standards was increased to five and in 1870-71, it was further increased to six. Moreover a Public Service Examination (II Class) was instituted at the end of the vernacular course and a pass in it entitled a student to obtain a clerkship in a vernacular office. The system of general education in the State stood, therefore, as follows in 1870-71:—



* Report of the Director of Public Instruction, Bombay, 1870-71, pp. 480, 482-84.

This reorganisation of English schools was the most notable achievement of this period. But it must be noted that the creation of the Department also led to a great increase in the number of English schools and in their enrolment, as the following statistics will show:—

TABLE NO. 5 (1)

English Schools and their Enrolment (1855-71)

	Number of English Schools			Number of Pupils		
	High	1st and 2nd Grade.	Total	High	1st and 2nd Grade.	Total
1855-56	Not available separately		30	Not available separately.		3,578
1864-65	...	9	134	143	2,181	18,310
1870-71	...	26	197	223	5,720	21,544

5 (5). *Development of Secondary Schools (1871-1921).*—During the next fifty years, the external frame-work of the system of general education described above remained substantially unchanged; but several alterations of content and nomenclature were introduced. The Indian Education Commission popularised the expressions “primary” and “secondary” so that the old expressions, “vernacular schools” and “vernacular education” were abandoned and replaced by “primary schools” and “Primary Education.” Similarly, the old phrases, “English schools” and “English education” were replaced by “secondary schools” and “Secondary Education.” Secondly, the earlier distinction between Anglo-Vernacular schools of the first grade and those of the second grade was now abolished and all Anglo-Vernacular schools which did not teach up to the Matriculation Standard were described as “middle schools” in order to distinguish them from the “high schools” which prepared students for the University. Thirdly, it was found that the old practice of converting a primary school into an Anglo-Vernacular school of the second grade by making arrangements for the teaching of English as an additional subject was not successful. It often merely spoilt a good primary school without creating even a tolerable middle school for the teaching of English. The experiment was, therefore, abandoned and all Anglo-Vernacular middle schools were generally organised as independent institutions. Fourthly, it became a universal practice in this period to teach English as a subject only in Standards I-III of secondary schools and to use it as a medium of instruction in Standards IV-VII, except in the English-teaching schools or European and Anglo-Indian schools which, for special reasons used English

as a medium of instruction in all standards. Fifthly, the old practice of confining the studies in high schools to Standards IV-VII only was also abandoned and every high school now taught all the seven standards from Standard I to Standard VII. Sixthly, an alternative examination to the Matriculation was organised in 1889. It qualified for Government service but not for admission to the University and its principal object was to divert students into practical walks of life. Seventhly the Public Service Examination at the end of the Middle School Course was discontinued in 1904-05 because a sufficiently large number of students who had passed the Matriculation or the new School Final Examination were now available for appointment in Government Departments.

During this period, some changes were introduced in the scheme of Primary Education also. An Infants' Class was added at the bottom of the Course in 1887 and a standard VII was added at the top in 1901. Similarly, the old Public Service Examination was discontinued and replaced by a Primary School Leaving Examination (which was then called the Vernacular School Final Examination) in 1906-07. The system of general education stood, therefore, as follows in 1921:—

Primary Schools.	Secondary Schools.	Colleges Collegiate courses of General and Special Education Matriculation
		School Final Examination or Matriculation VII
	English used as a medium of instruction	VI
Primary School Leaving Examination	V	V
	IV	IV
VII	III	III
VI	II	II
V	I	I
		High Schools
IV	Anglo-Vernacular Middle Schools	
III		
II		
I		
Infants Class Primary Standards		

The following table shows the growth of secondary schools between 1871 and 1921:—

TABLE No. 5 (2)

Secondary Schools and Pupils (1871-1921)

	Number of Secondary Schools.			Number of Pupils.		
	High	Middle	Total	High	Middle	Total
1870-71	26	197	223	5,720	21,544	27,264
1875-76	45	167	212	7,737	17,497	25,234
1881-82	56	253	309	6,132	17,605	23,737
1886-87	74	314	388	20,883	17,181	38,064
1891-92	83	327	410	23,876	19,544	43,420
1896-97	109	357	466	17,513	18,651	36,164
1901-02	126	368	494	27,746	20,787	48,533
1906-07	136	381	517	34,377	23,611	57,988
1911-12	156	403	559	44,987	29,614	74,601
1916-17	154	311	465	44,980	25,570	70,550
1921-22	189	274	463	55,545	22,062	77,607

It will be seen from the above that the total number of students attending secondary schools fell from 27,264 in 1870-71 to 23,737 in 1881-82. Although this fall was not very large, it was serious enough to attract the notice of Government especially because there was also a corresponding fall in the number of students appearing for the Matriculation Examination as well as in those that joined the colleges. Quite obviously, this diminution of attendance was due partly to famine which affected the State during this period, and partly to the increase in the rates of fees charged in secondary schools. But Government was not satisfied with these explanations and the matter was ultimately referred to a Committee for investigation. It came to the conclusion that the fall in the number of students receiving higher education was due, not to any radical defect in the system of education, nor to any causes which required a special remedy, but to a lack of adequate employment under Government.* In G. R., E. D., No. 400 of 27th March, 1880, therefore,

* This view would be clear from the following report made by the Head Master of the Ratnagiri High School:—

"Almost all the schools in the Presidency show a decrease in their numbers, even when they have not directly or indirectly suffered from famine. There is no gainsaying that people gave English Education to their children that they may be able to secure Government employment. This they did as long as there was room for them. But now it is notorious that all the services are clogged and that schools are turning out candidates in such large numbers that it is impossible for any Government to make provision for them. Thus what was so long looked upon as their due has suddenly disappeared from their view, and a reaction is the consequence. In districts far beyond the influence of the Presidency town, people have been moved to give English education to their children from mercenary

Government announced that a more liberal policy would be followed in appointing educated persons in Government service and laid down the following principles:—

“(1) Candidates who have passed the Matriculation shall have a preferential claim to vacant appointments over candidates who have merely passed the Public Service Examination (First Class), unless these last hold the 2nd year certificate for the Agricultural High School Class.

(2) Candidates who have passed the F. A. Examination shall have a preferential claim for situations of Rs. 30 and upwards over candidates either in or out of the service who have merely matriculated.

(3) At least one-half of all vacancies in Departments other than the Revenue Department, of the value of Rs. 50 per mensem and upwards, shall be given to graduates, especially to graduates of distinction.”

These orders materially increased the employment under Government available to those who had passed the Matriculation or higher Examination. Consequently, they stimulated the tendency on the part of students to complete the secondary course and to proceed to the University, if possible. As stated already, the fate of English schools in the State had always been bound up with employment under Government. The first English schools came into existence because a knowledge of English secured a job under Government and their popularity increased in proportion to the employment available. The diagnosis of the Committee that the fall in numbers was mainly due to restriction of employment was, therefore, correct and the above orders of the Government supplied the remedy required. Consequently, the attendance in secondary schools began to rise again and in 1886-87, it reached 38,064 which implied an increase of about 11,000 over the figures for 1870-71. Thereafter, the attendance went on continuously increasing till 1921-22.†

5 (6). *Development of Secondary Schools (1921-47).*—The growth of Secondary Education was very rapid during the next twenty-six years. This was partly due to the great awakening that had taken place among the people, particularly in the country-side, and partly to the development of Indian private enterprise. The following table will show the

motives. Hitherto at least they have never sent their children to school for the sake of learning alone. Now that the prospects have become so gloomy, many a boy has been either withdrawn from school or detained at home and sent to look after his estate (if he has any) or trained up in his father's profession as paying much better than the doubtful return that a long and expensive course of study is likely to make.” Report of the Director of Public Instruction, Bombay, 1877-78, p. 81.

† The only exception to the above statement is the year 1916-17 which records a small fall. But this was apparent only and due to the exclusion of the statistics for Indian States which have been included in the figures for 1911-12.

increase in the number of secondary schools and of the pupils attending them between 1921 and 1947:—

TABLE No. 5 (3)

Secondary Schools and Pupils (1921-47)

		Number of Secondary Schools.			Number of Pupils.		
		High	Middle	Total	High	Middle	Total
1921-22	...	189	274	463	55,545	22,062	77,607
1926-27	...	235	294	529	77,723	22,571	1,00,294
1931-32	...	281	408	689	95,807	27,771	1,23,578
1936-37	...	302	337	639	1,03,318	23,769	1,27,087
1941-42	...	415	454	869	1,61,203	31,498	1,92,701
1946-47	...	555	626	1,181	2,38,512	46,508	2,85,020

N. B.—There is a small fall in the number of schools in 1936-37. This is due to the separation of Sind. It may also be noticed that the increase in enrolment is so great between 1931-32 and 1936-37 that it has more than compensated for the loss due to the separation of Sind.

Significant as this expansion is, the internal changes of structure and content that were introduced during this period were of far greater importance. These may be briefly summed up as follows:—

(a) The use of English as a medium of instruction was abandoned almost completely by 1936-37 and entirely by 1946-47 (except, of course, in the case of European and Anglo-Indian or the English-teaching schools). The importance attached to the study of English as a subject, however, continued undiminished during this period.

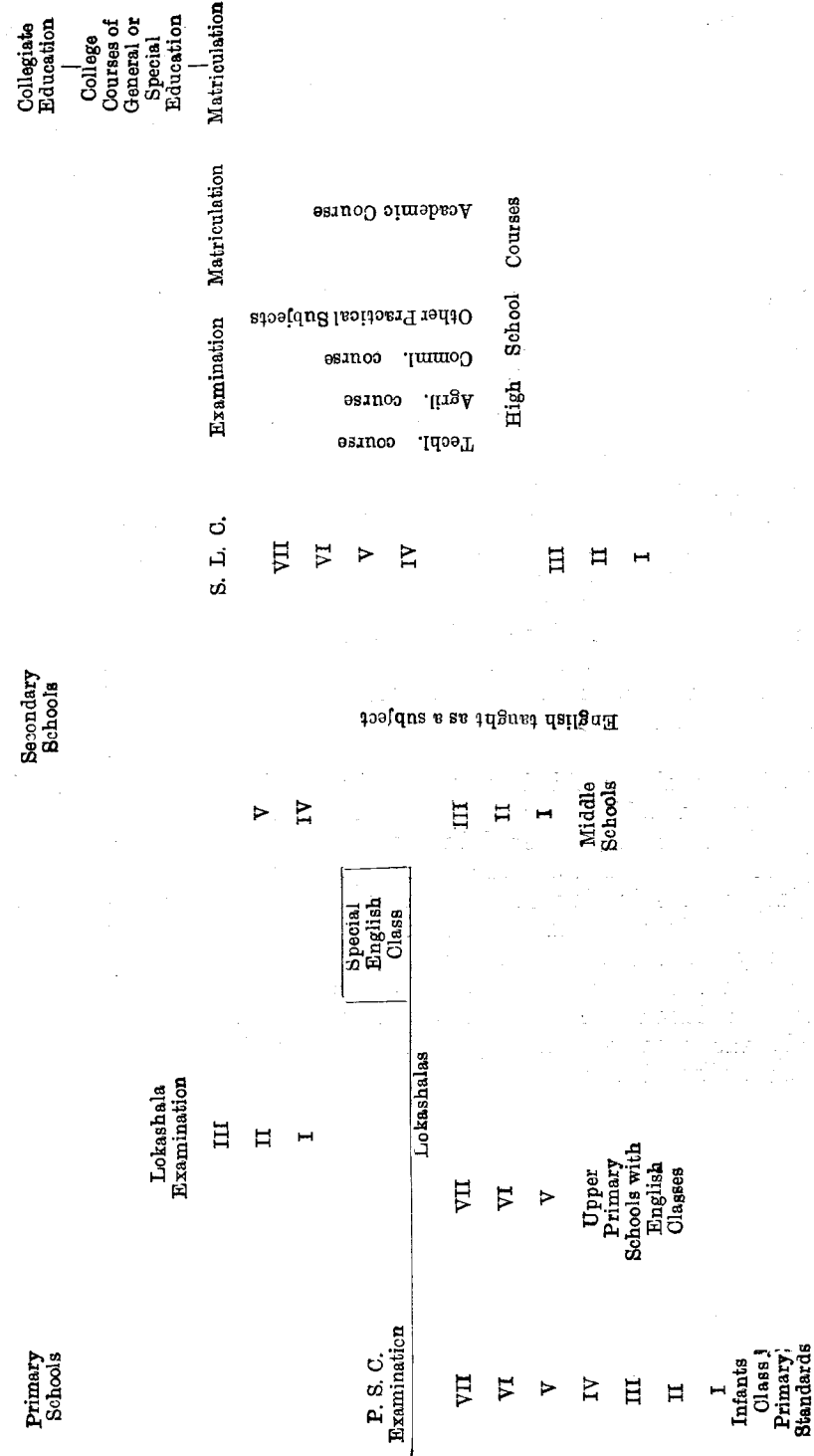
(b) The desire to study English spread to the rural areas during this period. A number of secondary schools—both high and middle—came therefore to be established in the bigger villages. Moreover, two special expedients were adopted to spread English education in the country-side. The first of these was a revival of the old system of Anglo-Vernacular schools of the second grade with certain modifications. In 1919, Government decided to attach twenty “English classes” to selected primary schools. Each class was in the charge of a specially qualified teacher and the expenditure on his salary was borne by Government. The pupils studied all the other subjects of the curriculum as part of the primary school and were taught English in addition by the special teacher in charge of the class. As the experience of these institutions was found to be encouraging, the local bodies were permitted to start such classes wherever necessary and the expenditure on their account was admitted for grant-in-aid. Secondly, special classes for students who had passed Standard VII of the primary school were also organised. Their duration was one year and they imparted instruction in English only and

prepared their students for the annual examination of Standard III of the secondary course in English. These classes, therefore, enabled students from a rural area to join a high school after having studied English for one year only. Such classes were first started as an experimental measure in some Government high schools in the quinquennium 1922-27 and when they had been proved to be successful, permission was given to private schools also to conduct them.

(c) Until 1936-37, most of the high schools in the State followed the academic course which led to the University through the Matriculation. The Popular Ministry which came to power in 1937 decided to alter this state of affairs and to start diversified courses. Accordingly, special courses in Technical, Agricultural and Commercial Education were organised in Government high schools and assistance was also given to such private agencies as came forward to conduct them. Moreover, an experiment of conducting a secondary school without English was also undertaken and some *Lokashalas* (which taught a course which was spread over three years after passing the P. S. C. Examination and which was equivalent to the Matriculation *minus* English *plus* a craft) were organised. For the purpose of these new courses, an S.L.C. Examination was started in 1943 as an alternative to the Matriculation and from 1946, a separate Lokashala Examination was also organised.

The following chart shows the position of the general system of education in the State as it was in 1947:—

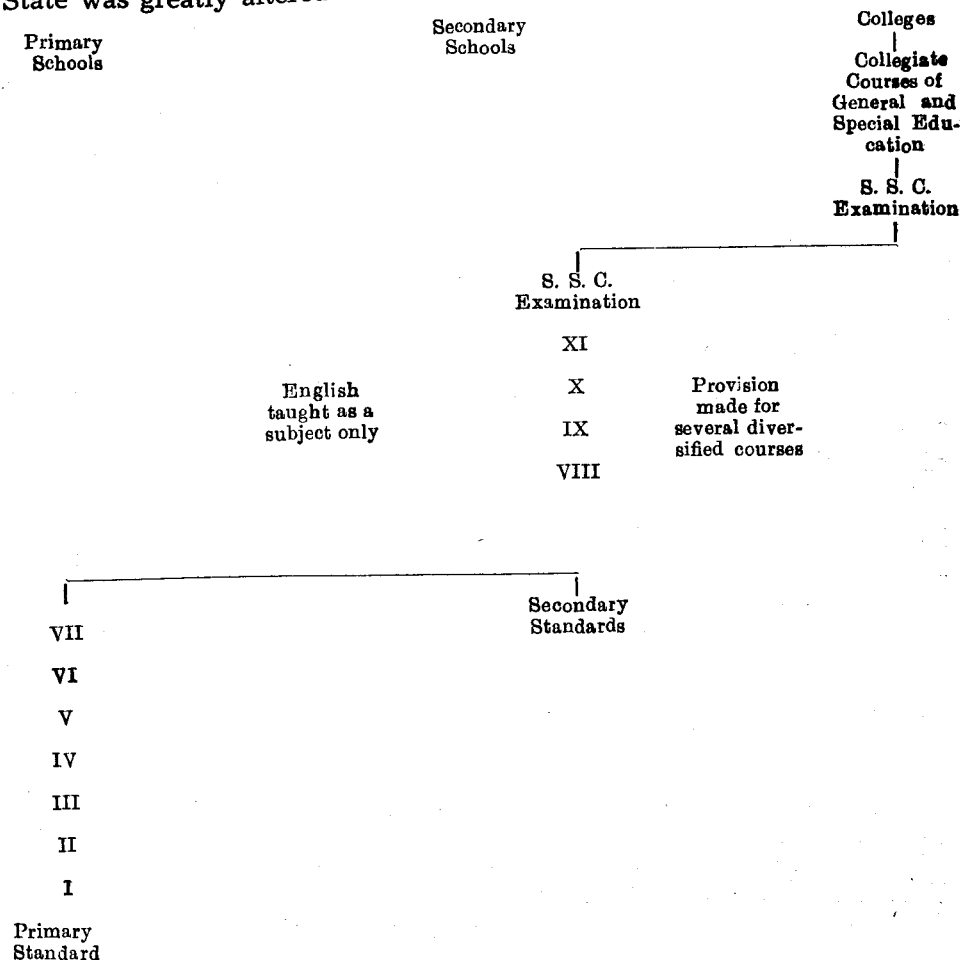
Secondary Schools



5 (7) . *Development of Secondary Schools (1947-55).*—After the attainment of Independence, a reconstruction of education was undertaken in almost every field but in no other sphere were such radical changes introduced as in that of Secondary Education which admittedly formed the weakest link in the general system of education under the British rule. In the first place, it was decided to reduce the domination of English from which secondary schools had suffered so much in the past. For this purpose, the teaching of English was removed altogether from Standards I-III and English was taught as a subject only in Standards IV-VII. This radical reform made it possible to eliminate the difference between primary Standards V-VII and secondary Standards I-III. Accordingly, a common syllabus was adopted for primary Standards V-VII and secondary Standards I-III and the new standards were declared to be primary in principle so that the primary course was now spread over seven years (the Infant Class being abolished) and the secondary course over four years. Moreover, it was also decided to number the primary and secondary standards consecutively from I-XI. It may also be pointed out that this major reform had three other consequences: (1) The English classes attached to primary schools were closed; (2) the special classes for teaching English to P. S. C. passed students were also discontinued; and (3) the old middle schools which taught Standards I-III of the secondary course only were virtually eliminated. Prior to 1946-47 the number of middle schools was always greater than that of the high schools; but after 1947, the number of high schools exceeded greatly the number of middle schools in the State.

Secondly, it was also decided to reduce the domination of the Matriculation Examination which had been the other major evil from which Secondary Education had suffered in the past. For this purpose, a new Secondary School Certificate Examination was instituted at the end of the secondary course in lieu of both the Matriculation and the S. L. C. Examinations. This examination served as an entrance examination to the University on the one hand and as a Secondary School Leaving Examination on the other. It provided for such a large variety of subjects that it reduced the domination of the University courses very considerably and became a more powerful weapon for diverting students into various walks of life.

As a result of these changes, the system of general education in the State was greatly altered and stood as follows in 1955:—



Partly owing to the merger of Indian States and partly owing to the policy of expansion adopted by Government, there was a great increase in secondary schools and their enrolment during this period as the following statistics will show:—

TABLE NO. 5 (4)
Secondary Schools and Pupils (1947-55)

		Number of Secondary Schools.			Number of Pupils.		
		High	Middle	Total	High	Middle	Total
1946-47	...	555	626	1,181	2,38,512	46,508	2,85,020
1951-52	...	1,022	327	1,349	4,01,648	34,484	4,36,132
1953-54	...	1,097	359	1,456	4,11,441	32,756	4,44,197
1954-55	...	1,165	356	1,521	4,45,109	30,093	4,75,202

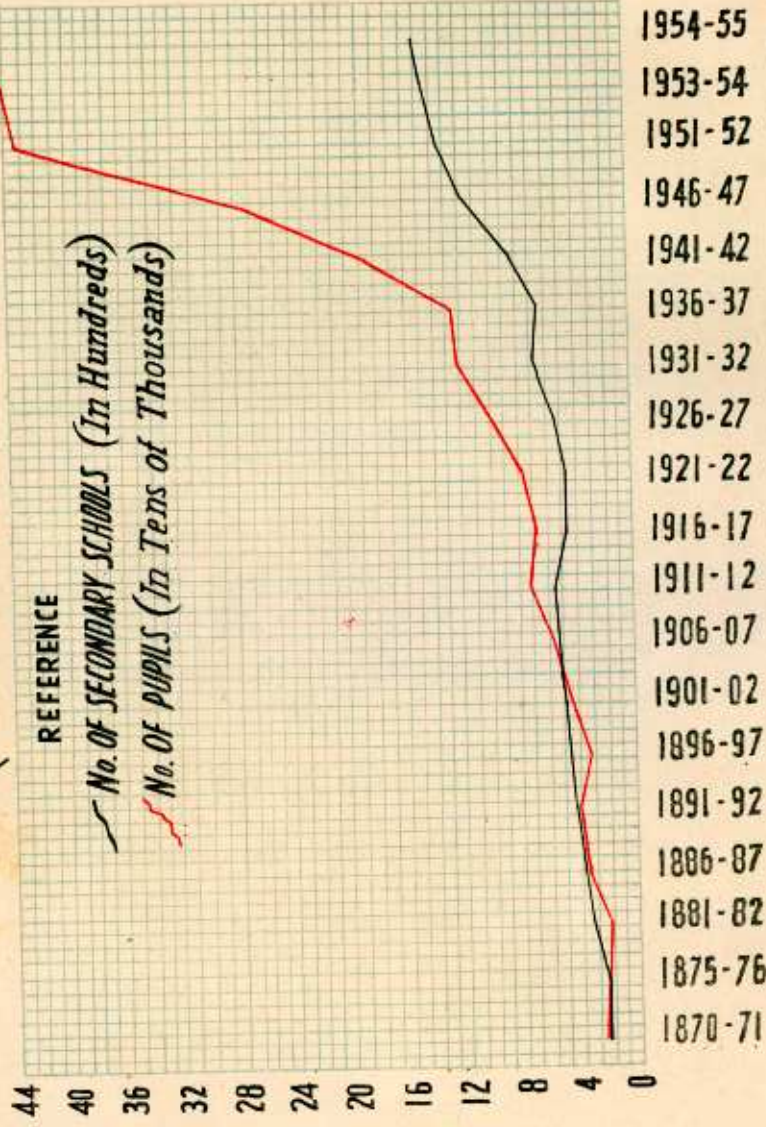
5 (8). *Management of Secondary Schools*.—Secondary Schools in the State are managed by five different agencies: (1) Central Government, (2) State Government, (3) District Local Boards, (4) Municipalities and (5) Private agencies (which include Societies, Trusts, Missions, and such other Charitable Organisations as well as private individuals). As stated earlier, the first English schools for Indian children were started by the Bombay Education Society which was a private organisation. But from 1822, these schools were conducted by the Bombay Native Education Society and the Board of Education which may be regarded as official agencies for all practical purposes. The mission schools for teaching English began in the third decade of the nineteenth century and increased rather rapidly. But even in 1855-56, the Government secondary schools numbered 23 (with 3,183 pupils) as against 7 secondary schools (with 395 pupils) conducted by missions.

Between 1855 and 1882, three other agencies came into the field. The first was that of Indian private enterprise which followed the example of the missions and started schools for teaching English. The second agency was that of the Indian States which followed the example of the British Government and began to conduct or aid secondary schools within their territories. This agency has, as stated already in Chapter I, now disappeared and the schools conducted by it have been taken over by the State Government. The third agency was that of the Railway Companies which began to conduct secondary schools mainly for the children of their European and Anglo-Indian officers. These were classified as "aided schools" for a long time; but owing to the nationalisation of Railways, they are now being classified as "conducted by the Central Government."

The Indian Education Commission of 1882 recommended the transfer of secondary schools also to local bodies, subject to certain conditions. Accordingly, the District Local Boards and the Municipalities began to appear as agencies for conducting secondary schools after 1883-84. These were historically the last agencies to come into this field.

The following table shows the number of secondary schools in the State according to management from 1881-82 to 1954-55:—

GROWTH OF SECONDARY SCHOOLS & PUPILS (1870-1955)



G.P.Z.P. POONA 1958

TABLE No. 5 (5)

Secondary Schools according to Management (1881-1955)

Boards.	Central Govern- ment.		State Govern- ment.		District Local Boards.		Municipal Boards.		Indian States.		Private Bodies.		Total.
Year.	No. of Institu- tions.	No. of Pupils.	No. of Institu- tions.	No. of Pupils.	No. of Institu- tions.	No. of Pupils.	No. of Institu- tions.	No. of Pupils.	No. of Institu- tions.	No. of Pupils.	No. of Institu- tions.	No. of Pupils.	No. of Pupils.
1881-82	147	11,170	48	3,225	114	9,342	23,737
1886-87	46	9,482	43	1,150	65	2,479	62	5,407	172	19,546	38,064
1891-92	30	7,341	13	296	71	3,199	76	6,444	220	26,140	43,420
1896-97	28	5,320	10	198	75	3,456	105	9,875	248	16,815	36,164
1901-02	28	6,582	5	191	70	3,958	116	8,997	275	28,805	48,533
1906-07	28	8,237	2	146	64	4,036	120	10,127	303	35,442	57,988
1911-12	28	8,827	4	294	60	4,719	128	14,086	339	46,675	74,601
1916-17	29	8,965	4	420	57	5,880	375	55,285	70,550
1921-22	35	11,266	5	518	55	6,317	368	59,506	77,607
1926-27	34	10,224	38	481	68	8,683	389	80,906	100,294
1931-32	37	10,129	133	4,186	73	10,389	446	98,874	123,578
1936-37	29	7,074	130	3,855	49	8,410	431	107,748	127,087
1941-42	25	6,400	148	4,791	69	11,595	627	169,915	192,701
1946-47	30	7,801	274	10,560	73	19,772	804	246,887	285,020
1951-52	7	1,559	90	20,981	2	400	42	18,920	1,208	394,272	436,132
1953-54	11	1,489	59	14,624	2	343	47	20,042	1,337	407,699	444,197
1954-55	12	1,812	49	12,877	2	333	50	20,797	1,408	439,383	475,202

5 (9). *Secondary Schools conducted by the Central Government.*—The secondary schools conducted by the Central Government are so few that no detailed historical account of these is necessary. One of these is meant for the children of defence personnel and is exclusively supported by the Government of India. The remaining eleven schools are conducted by the Railways and most of them receive aid from the State Government in addition to the contribution which the Central Government makes through the Railway budget. In 1954-55, all these 12 secondary schools had an enrolment of 1,812 and their total expenditure came to Rs. 5,72,256 out of which Rs. 4,50,272 was contributed by the Government of India, Rs. 33,230 by the State Government, Rs. 82,522 came from fees and Rs. 6,202 from other sources.

5 (10). *Secondary Schools conducted by the State Government.*—The first English schools in the State were naturally established by Government because the missionaries had not yet taken up the task and Indians educated enough to conduct secondary schools were not then available. In other words, Government had to assume the main, if not the exclusive, responsibility for establishing and maintaining secondary schools for the people because no other suitable agency was then available. This policy was first laid down by the Bombay Native Education Society; but, as stated earlier, it established only four English schools during its regime of twenty years. The Board of Education re-affirmed this policy and pursued it with some vigour so that the number of English schools conducted by Government increased to 13 in 1854-55. But it was only when the Department was created in 1855 that this policy was put into execution with proper vigour. Consequently, the number of secondary schools conducted by the Department increased to 147 in 1881-82 (out of a total of 309 secondary schools in the State as a whole). In other words, Government maintained about 50 per cent. of the secondary schools in the State in 1881-82 and thus formed the most important agency for the conduct of these institutions.

The Report of the Indian Education Commission, 1882, brought about a revolutionary change in this policy. It recommended:—

“(1) that it be distinctly laid down that the relation of the State to secondary is different from its relation to primary education, in that the means of primary education may be provided without regard to the existence of local co-operation, while it is ordinarily expedient to provide the means of secondary education only where adequate local co-operation is forthcoming; and that therefore, in all ordinary cases, secondary schools for instruction in English be hereafter established by the State preferably on the footing of the system of grant-in-aid; and

(2) that, in ordinary circumstances, the further extension of secondary education in any District be left to the operation of the grant-in-aid system, as soon as that District is provided with an efficient High School, Government or other, along with its necessary feeders.”

Both these recommendations were accepted by Government and it was decided that, in future, Government would only concern itself with the maintenance of one efficient high school in every district and conduct it in such a manner that it would not compete with private enterprise.* Accordingly, a number of secondary schools conducted by Government was transferred to Municipalities; a few were transferred to the District Local Boards; and some were even transferred to Indian private enterprise. This policy of withdrawal from the direct conduct of secondary schools was fully worked out between 1884-85 and 1911-12 during which time not only were the Government secondary schools reduced in number, but the contributions which were hitherto being levied on their account from local or municipal funds were also discontinued *in toto*.

How rigidly this policy was followed may be seen from the statistics of this period. In 1881-82, the Government secondary schools numbered 147. In 1896-97, this was reduced to 28 of which 20 were high schools for boys, 6 were middle schools for boys, 1 was a high school for girls and 1 was a middle school for girls. During the next twenty years, the total number of Government secondary schools remained stationary at 28 and increased only to 29 in 1916-17. The only changes that had occurred during this period were (1) the conversion of the Middle English School for Girls at Ahmedabad into a full-fledged High School in 1905-06 and the establishment of a new Government High School for Boys at Jalgaon in 1914 owing to the division of the old Khandesh District into two—East Khandesh and West Khandesh.

Between 1916-17 and 1936-37, the old policy of rigidly restricting the number of secondary schools conducted by Government was slightly modified and it was decided to establish new Government secondary schools for girls and Muslims. Accordingly, Government Middle Schools for Girls were established at Ahmednagar, Thana, Dharwar, Nasik, and Bijapur in 1920-21.† The Government Secondary School in Poona Cantonment was converted into an Anglo-Urdu High School for Boys and a new Anglo-Urdu High School for Boys was established at Hubli about the same time. Similarly, Anglo-Urdu Middle Schools for Boys were opened at Nasik and Sholapur and an Anglo-Urdu Middle School for Girls was opened at Poona. The result of this policy was to increase the total number of Government secondary schools from 29 in 1916-17 to 37 in 1931-32. In 1936-37, however, it again fell down to 29 on account of the separation of Sind and the transfer or closure of some Government secondary schools in the State proper.

The Popular Ministry which came into office in 1937 modified this policy still further. From 1885 to 1937 Government Secondary Schools

* The Departmental high schools are to be maintained as models and not allowed to compete with private institutions or to monopolise an increasing educational area. The limit of accommodation being reached in a Government high school further growth should be checked by exacting larger fees and higher standards. The gradual transfer of Secondary Education (to private and local management must be contemplated and the way prepared by a gradual raising of fees.—Report of the Director of Public Instruction, Bombay State, Poona, for 1884-85, Appendix C.

† These were raised to the status of High Schools after 1937.

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were maintained on the principle that they should serve as models to private enterprise. This policy which had come in for criticism from non-official quarters was now abandoned and it was decided to maintain Government secondary schools as a supplement to private enterprise. It was further decided that the Government secondary schools would, as far as possible, restrict themselves to the teaching of such courses as were not ordinarily provided in private schools. Accordingly, some Government secondary schools were converted into primary training institutions; and some others were converted into vocational high schools. Consequently, the number of Government secondary schools fell from 29 in 1936-37 to 25 in 1941-42, but increased again to 30 in 1946-47 owing to the establishment of 4 Lokashalas and taking over of an Agricultural High School at Abrama, District Surat, under Government management.

After 1947, there was a sudden increase in the number of secondary schools conducted by Government owing to the merger of the old Indian States. These Administrations were conducting a number of high and middle schools which had to be taken over by the State Government, at least as a transitional measure. Government, however, has since decided that these schools as well as the Anglo-Urdu schools should be transferred to private enterprise and this policy is being steadily pursued. During this period, therefore, the number of Government secondary schools which reached a maximum of 145 in 1948-49 has been dwindling and stood at 49 in 1954-55.

The following table gives the details about secondary schools conducted by Government since 1881-82:—

TABLE No. 5 (6)
Government Secondary Schools (1881-1955)

Year.	No. of Institutions.	No. of Pupils.	Expenditure from					Annual Cost of educating a Pupil.		
			Government Funds.	D.L.B. Funds.	Municipal Funds.	Fees.	Other Sources.	Total Expenditure.	Total Cost.	Cost to Government.
			Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
1881-82	147	11,170	1,36,957	614	34,254	1,48,150	10,865	3,30,840	29.6	12.3
1886-87	46	9,482	1,24,636	...	17,154	1,88,981	10,335	3,41,106	35.9	13.1
1891-92	30	7,341	1,42,641	...	7,799	1,84,216	9,645	3,44,301	45.9	19.4
1896-97	28	5,820	1,52,824	...	2,139	1,97,751	11,639	3,64,353	62.6	26.2
1901-02	28	6,582	1,74,565	...	1,433	1,72,704	7,014	3,55,716	54.0	26.5
1906-07	28	8,237	1,68,342	...	1,260	1,94,033	5,678	3,69,313	44.8	20.4
1911-12	28	8,827	2,05,597	2,32,342	6,713	4,44,652	50.4	23.3
1916-17	29	8,965	2,93,758	2,61,047	9,606	5,64,411	62.9	32.8
1921-22	35	11,266	6,73,851	3,25,937	2,770	10,02,558	88.9	59.8
1926-27	34	10,224	6,52,381	...	7	3,95,887	1,690	10,49,965	102.7	63.8
1931-32	37	10,129	6,65,897	4,21,766	915	10,88,578	107.5	65.6
1936-37	29	7,074	6,13,574	2,56,560	5,650	8,75,784	123.8	86.7
1941-42	25	6,400	4,81,368	1,77,109	7,976	6,66,453	104.1	75.2
1946-47	30	7,801	7,10,070	2,11,737	33,336	9,55,143	122.4	91.0
1951-52	97	22,540	18,04,386	10,11,164	33,308	28,48,858	126.4	80.0
1953-54	70	16,113	15,77,817	7,40,653	43,759	23,62,229	146.6	97.9
1954-55	61	14,689	16,07,251	7,47,713	40,658	23,95,622	163.1	109.4

N.B.—(1) From 1951-52, the figures of expenditure given in the above table include also the expenditure incurred on the secondary schools maintained by the Central Government.

(2) The figures for 1951-52, 1953-54, and 1954-55 (but not those of earlier years) include the secondary schools conducted by the Government of India.

5 (11). *Secondary Schools conducted by the District Local Boards:—* As stated earlier, the District Local Boards became the managers of secondary schools after 1885 when some of the secondary schools formerly conducted by the Department were transferred to their control. But owing to the paucity of funds and the priority accorded to the claims of Primary Education, the number of secondary schools conducted by the District Local Boards was very small between 1891-92 and 1921-22.

Then came the experiment of starting English classes in selected upper primary schools. These classes were regarded as institutions at the secondary level and as most of them were attached to schools conducted by the District Local Boards, the number of secondary schools conducted by the Boards increased very substantially between 1921-22 and 1946-47.

After 1947, the decision to discontinue the teaching of English at the lower secondary stage led to the closure of the English classes and accordingly the number of secondary schools conducted by the District Local Boards again fell down very rapidly. At present, only two secondary schools are conducted by District Local Boards, viz. the D. L. B. High School, Madha, conducted by the D. L. B., Sholapur, and the Bagewadi High School, Bagewadi, conducted by the D.L.B., Bijapur. It may, therefore, be said that the District Local Boards do not now play an important part in the management of secondary schools.

The following table gives the details of the secondary schools maintained by the District Local Boards from 1886-87 to 1954-55:—

TABLE No. 5 (7)

Secondary Schools conducted by District Local Boards (1886-1955)

Year.	No. of Institutions.	No. of Pupils.	Expenditure from,					Annual Cost of educating a pupil.		
			Govern-ment Funds.	D. L. B. Funds.	Municipal Funds.	Fees.	Other Sources.	Total Expendi- ture.	Total Cost.	Cost to Govern- ment.
			Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
1886-87	43	1,150	...	2,213	848	7,419	1,812	12,297	10.6	...
1891-92	13	296	600	841	...	2,300	607	4,348	14.6	2.0
1896-97	10	198	600	1,120	...	1,994	96	3,810	19.2	3.0
1901-02	5	191	...	761	...	2,204	...	2,965	15.5	...
1906-07	2	146	...	119	...	1,964	...	2,083	14.3	...
1911-12	4	294	...	6,579	...	3,126	...	9,705	33.0	...
1916-17	4	420	5,130	2,962	...	4,578	...	12,670	30.2	12.2
1921-22	5	518	12,873	13,360	...	8,006	...	34,239	66.1	24.8
1926-27	38	481	16,438	12,945	68	28,236	3,168	60,855	126.5	34.2
1931-32	133	4,186	16,979	34,133	1,054	70,920	8,897	1,31,983	31.5	4.1
1936-37	130	3,855	4,508	10,874	468	52,833	6,071	74,754	19.4	11.6
1941-42	148	4,791	5,564	7,643	...	61,065	4,419	78,691	16.4	1.2
1946-47	274	10,560	8,622	20,235	4,683	1,65,622	24,823	2,23,985	21.2	0.8
1951-52	2	400	11,195	2,332	...	16,236	2,476	32,239	80.5	27.9
1953-54	2	343	24,117	5,142	2,129	8,752	3,027	43,167	125.9	70.3
1954-55	2	333	35,652	2,323	...	15,713	1,795	55,483	166.6	107.1

5 (12). *Secondary Schools conducted by Municipalities.*—As in the case of the District Local Boards, the Municipalities became the managers of secondary schools after 1885. Prior to that date they merely contributed towards the expenditure of the secondary schools maintained by Government within their areas. In 1881-82, for example, the Municipalities contributed Rs. 34,254 out of a total expenditure of Rs. 3,30,840 incurred on the maintenance of all Government secondary schools.

In 1886-87, the Municipal secondary schools numbered 65, most of them being transferred from the Department. Since then the Municipalities have become an important agency for the conduct of secondary schools. Government advises them to accord priority to the claims of Primary Education and not to incur any expenditure on Secondary Education unless the needs of Primary Education are adequately provided for. But as several Municipalities are keen on maintaining secondary schools, Government does not discourage such enterprise. The facilities for Secondary Education provided by Municipalities have, therefore, greatly increased since 1886-87.

Local bodies conducting secondary schools (whether Municipalities or Local Boards) are treated like any other agency and are given grant-in-aid on the same general principles which apply to private enterprise in Secondary Education.

A recent activity undertaken by the Municipalities in this respect deserves special notice. A view is now being put forward that it is the duty of the Municipalities to conduct secondary schools which charge low rates of fees and thereby help to spread Secondary Education among the poorer sections of the community. The Poona Municipal Corporation conducts a high school of this type for boys and the Kolhapur Municipality conducts a similar high school for girls. Government is watching this experiment with interest.

The following table gives the details about the secondary schools conducted by Municipalities since 1886-87:—

TABLE No. 5 (8)
Secondary Schools conducted by Municipalities (1886-1955)

Year.	No. of Institutions.	No. of Pupils.	Expenditure from				Annual cost of educating a pupil.	
			Govern-ment Funds.	D. L. B. Funds.	Municipal Funds.	Fees.	Other Sources.	Total Expenditure.
			Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
1886-87	65	2,479	6,115	1,510	15,645	11,358	320	34,948
1891-92	71	3,199	12,750	656	24,229	27,066	597	65,298
1896-97	75	3,456	22,955	198	21,552	41,515	497	86,717
1901-02	70	3,958	21,201	417	25,505	45,317	271	92,711
1906-07	64	4,036	28,864	338	34,854	50,004	781	1,14,841
1911-12	60	4,719	29,700	633	45,846	66,710	708	1,43,597
1916-17	57	5,880	43,321	815	59,236	99,213	3,018	2,05,603
1921-22	55	6,317	91,914	742	66,845	1,08,920	12,114	2,80,535
1926-27	68	8,683	1,05,846	500	1,40,898	2,13,586	10,471	4,71,301
1931-32	73	10,389	1,00,085	825	1,76,953	2,68,312	11,330	5,57,505
1936-37	49	8,410	60,430	...	1,28,182	2,10,137	4,208	4,02,957
1941-42	69	11,595	71,510	530	86,204	3,00,010	10,669	4,68,923
1946-47	73	19,772	1,70,573	896	1,24,493	5,89,940	24,091	9,09,993
1951-52	42	18,920	6,34,734	...	1,80,582	9,05,319	52,247	17,72,882
1953-54	47	20,042	7,90,086	...	2,97,560	9,23,869	68,263	20,79,778
1954-55	50	20,797	8,02,413	...	2,03,528	10,51,770	40,574	20,98,285
								100.9
								38.6

5 (13). *Schools conducted by Private Enterprise.*—The secondary schools conducted by private enterprise formed more than 90 per cent. of the total number of secondary schools in the State. In fact, it may even be said that the problem of Secondary Education has now become almost equivalent to the problem of private secondary schools.

As in other fields, the missionaries took a lead in this area also. The first private secondary schools in the State were conducted by them and for a long time the mission secondary schools dominated the entire field of private enterprise. In the earlier years, the missions had hoped that their secondary schools might multiply so greatly as to form the principal agency for the spread of Secondary Education. But these ideas of expansion were given up between 1882 and 1902 and the missions decided to concentrate their energies on the conduct of a limited number of secondary schools in as high a state of efficiency as possible. This policy continues to be followed to this date.

Private Indian enterprise was rather late to appear in the field. This was due to two reasons: firstly, Indians educated enough to conduct secondary schools became available only after the first English schools and colleges were established and had functioned for some time; and secondly, the early belief of the administrators that only an Englishman could be the headmaster of an English school definitely prevented Indians from organising private English schools under their control. Indian private enterprise, therefore, made a humble beginning some time after 1855. It received its first encouragement when Grant finally abandoned the old policy of requiring an Englishman to be the headmaster of a high school and introduced the system of grant-in-aid in 1865-66. By 1870-71, secondary schools conducted by Indians had established a place for themselves, although their number was not large and their efficiency was not rated to be high. From 1875-76, Government adopted the policy of increasing the fees charged in Government schools. This gave a stimulus to private Indian enterprise because most of the secondary schools conducted by Indians charged low rates of fees in order to bring education within the reach of the poorer students. By 1881-82, therefore, private secondary schools under Indian management increased considerably and became even more numerous than the mission schools.

An event of a revolutionary significance in this field was the establishment of the New English School, Poona, in 1880. This institution was founded by Shri V. K. Chiplunkar, Shri B. G. Tilak, Shri G. G. Agarkar and Shri N. B. Namjoshi. These promoters were all highly educated and competent persons who could have easily obtained a job under Government.* But they decided to devote their lives to the cause of education and to lead a life of poverty in order that good education may be provided to the people at a low cost. At this time, the Government schools were known for their efficiency; but they were costly and charged fees which were beyond the reach of the poor student. On the other hand, there were also a number of private schools conducted by Indians which charged low rates of fees; but their efficiency left a good deal to

* Shri Chiplunkar was already in Government service and had resigned his post in order to start the school.

be desired. The promoters of the New English School wished to combine the highest efficiency with the utmost cheapness. They knew that this could only be achieved if highly educated men agreed to work as teachers on salaries which were barely sufficient for their maintenance and it was this that they had decided to do.

The New English School shattered several prejudices of long standing within a few years of its existence. For example, it was generally believed that a private secondary school would hardly be successful in the Deccan. "A generally poor population", wrote the Secretary to Government in 1883-84, "offers little inducement for the establishment of 'Private adventure' schools for Secondary Education. To maintain a school of this class and provide efficient masters, it is necessary to find scholars who can pay. A very large school has flourished for many years in Bombay as a private unaided enterprise at the sole risk and profit of the Headmaster; but the pupils are children of wealthy Parsees. Such a speculation would not prosper in the Deccan."* Similarly, the popular belief at this period was that only third-rate people who had failed to secure a Government job would start a private school and hence the public was not prepared to believe that persons of great ability and high university qualifications would abandon the royal road of Government service and undertake the doubtful project of starting a private secondary school. Both these ideas were immediately falsified by the establishment and success of the New English School. Moreover, the old ideas of the innate superiority of the Departmental or missionary secondary schools were also questioned by this new institution. In 1885-86, the New English School was examined for the first time by the Department for the award of grants under the system of payment by results. In that year, the school "earned as its first grant the largest sum ever awarded by the Department to any single school" and the Inspecting Officer observed "I can have no hesitation in recording my opinion that the managers of this Society have succeeded in calling into existence and bringing to maturity a High School which in point of completeness of organisation, soundness of scholarship, individuality and zeal has no superior in the Presidency."† In the same way, the Elphinstone High School, Bombay, had hitherto been regarded as the unchallenged "Mistress of the Matriculation" and every year, this High School used to head the list of secondary schools with the largest number of successful candidates at the Matriculation. But the New English School beat this record in 1889-90 when 66 students passed the Matriculation from it (out of 101 presented) as against 44 out of 119 from the Elphinstone High School. Successes of this type raised the status and self-confidence of the secondary schools conducted by Indians and the Department also began to treat them with greater respect. In short, the New English School marked a revolution in Indian private enterprise in Secondary Education and as Shri Chiplunkar observed: "Suffice it, therefore, to say that the New English School is a fully accomplished fact, accomplished

* Report of the Director of Public Instruction, Bombay, 1883-84, p. ci.

† Report of the Director of Public Instruction, Bombay, 1885-86, p. 43.

too in the midst of a thousand difficulties, amidst popular apathy, in utter disregard of desponding opinions, in contemptuous indifference to showers of epithets like 'mad' 'hopeless', 'chimerical,' 'Utopian',—the invariable lot of every one who would be so bold as to disturb the dull routine of things.”*

The lead given by the New English School and by the Deccan Education Society, which was formed in 1884 to sponsor it and to establish other educational institutions in the Deccan, was followed in other parts of the State and private secondary schools established on the model of the New English School began to come into existence. This trend was greatly encouraged by the recommendations of the Indian Education Commission which laid down that special encouragement should be given to Indian private enterprise in education. Between 1882 and 1902, therefore, private secondary schools under Indian management increased very considerably.

Under the new policy laid down by Curzon in 1904, Government tried to control the expansion of Indian private enterprise on the ground that the secondary schools conducted by Indians often became the centres for political discontent. But in spite of all the Departmental restrictions, Indian private enterprise increased very greatly between 1902 and 1922. The pace of expansion increased even more between 1922 and 1937, mainly owing to the awakening among the people, especially of the rural areas. The tide of expansion is still kept up because the general restriction of the number of secondary schools maintained by all the other agencies (e.g. Government, Local Bodies, and Missions) creates a situation in which all the growing needs of the people in respect of Secondary Education have to be met mainly, if not exclusively, by private Indian enterprise. It must be said to the credit of the workers in this field that they have lived up to this challenge of the situation.

The following table shows the details about secondary schools managed by private agencies since 1881-82:—

TABLE No. 5 (9)
Secondary Schools maintained by Private Enterprise (1881-1955)

Year.	No. of Institutions.	No. of Pupils.	Expenditure from					Annual cost of educating a pupil	
			Govern-ment Funds.	D. L. B. Funds.	Muni- cipal Funds.	Fees.	Other Sources.	Total Expendi- ture.	Total cost. Gov-ern- ment.
			Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
1881-82	114	9,342	99,144	1,38,944	1,75,199	4,13,287	44.2
1886-87	172	19,546	2,15,459	3,547	3,826	2,43,256	1,73,941	6,40,029	32.7
1891-92	220	26,140	1,84,914	5,066	12,506	4,21,508	2,82,790	9,06,784	34.7
1896-97	248	16,815	2,41,659	6,650	11,692	4,70,406	3,59,517	10,89,924	64.8
1901-02	275	28,805	2,30,896	4,327	12,842	5,16,558	4,16,505	11,81,128	41.0
1906-07	303	35,442	2,91,960	6,555	9,817	6,87,258	4,40,792	14,36,382	40.5
1911-12	339	46,675	3,63,760	2,964	15,050	9,68,023	6,15,769	19,65,566	42.1
1916-17	375	55,285	6,24,914	7,340	20,816	13,34,481	8,27,298	28,14,849	50.9
1921-22	368	59,506	11,51,139	7,677	23,053	18,55,364	12,22,408	42,59,641	71.6
1926-27	389	80,906	14,94,880	8,029	45,239	28,79,287	14,39,375	58,66,810	72.5
1931-32	446	98,874	14,70,802	15,343	51,056	37,32,987	15,06,948	67,76,136	68.5
1936-37	431	1,07,748	11,97,540	3,790	51,648	41,92,987	14,94,677	69,40,642	64.4
1941-42	627	1,69,915	15,38,900	1,938	62,490	69,78,468	17,04,194	1,02,85,990	60.5
1946-47	804	2,46,887	35,53,441	1,335	63,332	1,34,42,591	32,08,080	2,02,68,779	82.1
1951-52	1208	3,94,272	1,65,98,226	500	59,828	2,43,04,139	56,44,970	4,57,07,663	115.9
1953-54	1337	4,07,699	1,65,18,693	10,429	64,303	2,60,87,292	72,89,384	4,99,70,101	122.6
1954-55	1408	4,39,383	1,81,43,591	6,290	74,915	2,87,72,480	76,69,645	5,46,66,921	124.4

5 (14). *Expenditure on Secondary Education by Sources*.—Detailed and comparable statistics of direct expenditure on Secondary Education are not available prior to 1881-82. From that year onwards, however, the details of the direct expenditure on Secondary Education by sources are reported in the Annual Reports of the Director of Education. The following table which has been compiled from these statistics, will give an idea of the manner in which Secondary Education in the State has been financed during the last seventy years:—

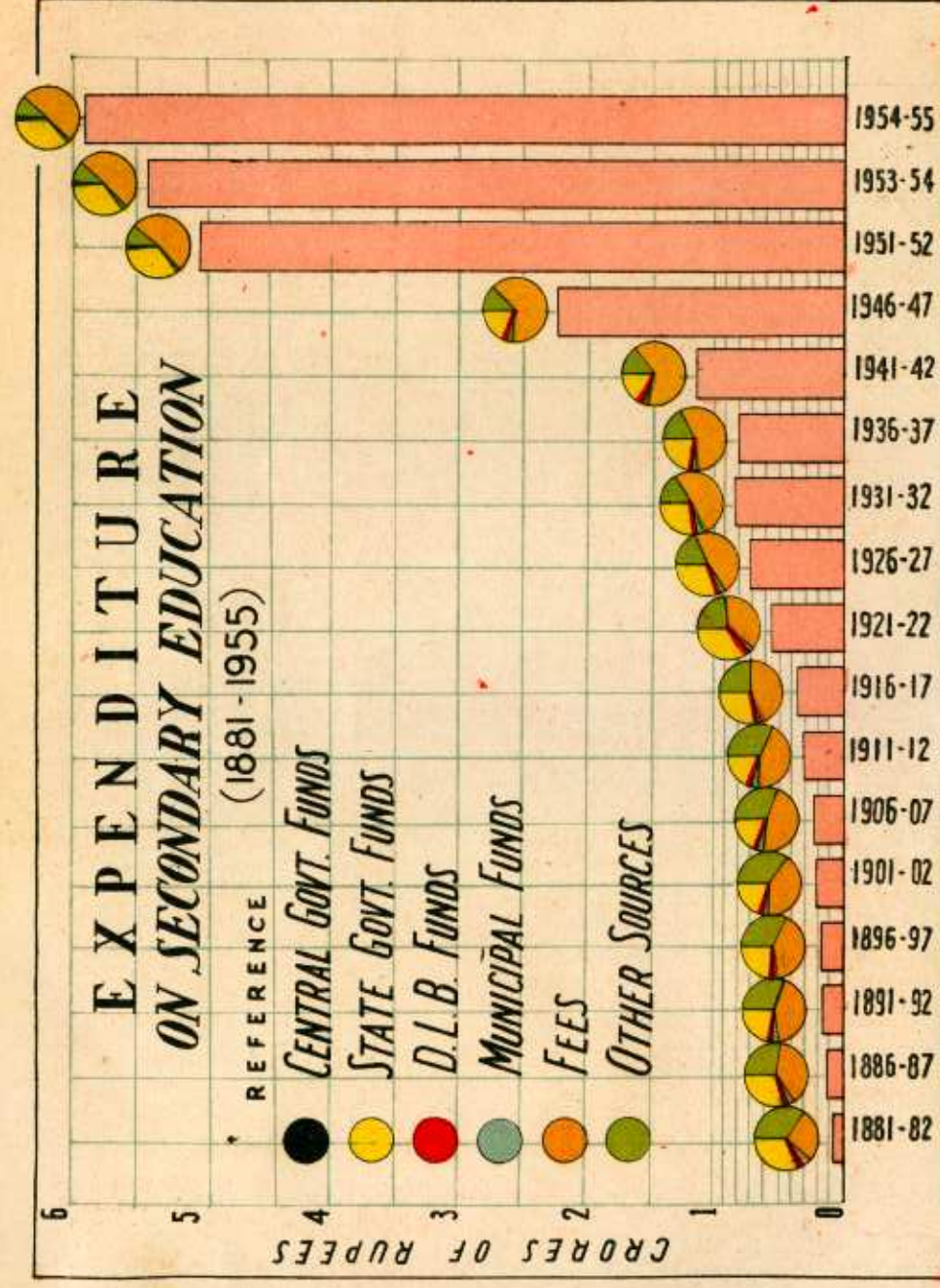


TABLE No. 5 (10)

Direct Expenditure on Secondary Education (1881-1955)

Year.	Total direct expenditure on education.	Direct Expenditure met from						Percentage of total direct expenditure on sec. edn. to total direct expend. on education.
		Central Government Funds.	State Government Funds.	D. L. B. Funds.	Municipal Funds.	Fees.	Other Sources.	
1	2	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	9
1881-82	27,79,966	...	2,64,241 (29.8)	8,839 (0.9)	34,253 (3.9)	2,84,462 (32.0)	2,96,319 (33.4)	31.9
1886-87	39,99,122	...	3,46,210 (29.4)	7,275 (0.6)	37,473 (3.2)	4,82,383 (41.0)	3,03,389 (25.8)	29.4
1891-92	52,72,435	...	3,40,995 (21.6)	6,563 (0.4)	44,534 (2.8)	7,26,809 (46.1)	4,60,042 (29.1)	30.0
1896-97	61,97,701	...	4,18,038 (22.4)	7,968 (0.4)	35,383 (1.9)	8,39,583 (44.9)	5,68,624 (30.4)	30.2
1901-02	65,92,193	...	4,24,361 (20.9)	5,505 (0.3)	39,720 (2.0)	8,77,773 (43.4)	6,75,956 (33.4)	30.7
1906-07	81,76,028	...	4,67,281 (20.3)	7,012 (0.3)	45,931 (2.0)	10,58,107 (46.0)	7,23,378 (31.4)	28.2
1911-12	1,07,60,164	...	5,91,274 (19.6)	10,176 (0.3)	60,896 (2.0)	14,22,673 (47.0)	9,38,777 (31.0)	28.1
1916-17	1,25,01,142	...	9,67,123 (26.9)	11,117 (0.3)	80,202 (2.2)	16,99,319 (47.2)	8,39,772 (23.4)	28.8
1921-22	2,48,77,485	...	19,29,777 (34.6)	21,779 (0.4)	89,898 (1.6)	22,98,227 (41.2)	12,37,292 (22.2)	22.0
1926-27
1931-32
1936-37
1941-42
1946-47
1951-52
1953-54
1954-55

TABLE No. 5 (10) (Contd.)

Year.	Total direct expenditure on education.	Direct Expenditure met from					Percentage of total direct expenditure on sec. edn. to total direct expend. on education.		
		Central Government Funds.	State Government Funds.	D. L. B. Funds.	Municipal Funds.	Fees.	Other Sources.	Total Expenditure.	
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	
1926-27	3,32,44,291	...	22,69,545 (30.5)	21,474 (0.3)	186,212 (2.5)	35,16,996 (47.2)	14,54,704 (19.5)	74,48,931 (100.0)	22.4
1931-32	3,52,26,584	...	22,53,763 (26.3)	50,301 (0.6)	2,29,063 (2.7)	44,93,985 (52.5)	15,27,090 (17.9)	85,54,202 (100.0)	24.3
1936-37	3,29,19,795	...	18,76,052 (22.6)	14,664 (0.2)	1,80,298 (2.2)	47,12,517 (56.8)	15,10,606 (18.2)	82,94,137 (100.0)	25.2
1941-42	4,27,94,809	...	20,97,342 (18.2)	10,111 (0.1)	1,48,694 (1.3)	75,16,652 (65.3)	17,27,258 (15.1)	1,15,00,057 (100.0)	26.9
1946-47	8,43,28,068	...	44,42,706 (19.9)	22,466 (0.1)	1,92,509 (0.9)	1,44,09,890 (65.4)	32,90,330 (14.7)	2,23,57,901 (100.0)	25.6
1951-52	20,05,45,354	3,89,084 (0.8)	1,77,59,457 (35.2)	2,832 (0.0)	2,40,410 (0.5)	2,62,36,858 (52.1)	57,33,001 (11.4)	5,03,61,642 (100.0)	25.1
1953-54	21,83,15,143	3,75,650 (0.7)	1,85,35,063 (34.0)	15,571 (0.0)	3,63,992 (0.7)	2,77,60,566 (51.0)	74,04,433 (13.6)	5,44,55,275 (100.0)	24.9
1954-55	23,10,84,375	4,50,272 (0.8)	2,01,45,599 (34.0)	8,613 (0.0)	2,78,443 (0.5)	3,05,61,136 (51.7)	76,95,834 (13.0)	5,91,39,897 (100.0)	25.6

N. B.—The expenditure from the revenues of the Indian States has been included under "Other Sources" from 1881-82 to 1911-12, both inclusive.

It will be seen from the above table that Secondary Education has received about 25 per cent. (the actual figures show a variation from 31.9 per cent. in 1881-82 to 22.0 per cent. in 1921-22) of the total direct expenditure on Education, while Primary Education was allocated about 50 per cent. of the total direct expenditure on Education.*

It will also be seen that the most important source for financing Secondary Education is fees which have contributed about half the total direct expenditure on Secondary Education. Next in importance comes the expenditure from State funds which contribute about one-third. Then comes the contribution of the "other sources" which include endowments, subscriptions, donations, etc., and make up about one-seventh of the total expenditure. It may also be noticed that "other sources" made a far larger contribution to the total expenditure on Secondary Education in the past and that, in 1901-02, they contributed about one-third of the total direct expenditure on Secondary Education. But the significance of these sources is being reduced in recent years. In other words, the voluntary contributions of the people to Secondary Education have not been able to keep pace with the growth of secondary schools or with the increase in the expenditure on Secondary Education. The remaining sources of expenditure play a very small role and need no special mention.

5 (15). *Fees in Secondary Schools (1820-1955).*—Although fees contribute about half the total direct expenditure on Secondary Education at present and thus form the most important source for financing Secondary Education, it must be remembered that they did not occupy this position in the past. In fact, the English schools conducted by the Bombay Education Society were all free and no fee was charged in any secondary school in the State till 1840. It was the Board of Education which first introduced the principle of levying fees in English schools in 1841. In that year, it was decided that only poor and deserving scholars were to be admitted free and that a fee of annas 8 per month was to be charged to scholars in "good circumstances". The Board felt that this levy of fees would create a sense of value for education and would bring in beneficial results. In other words, the main object of the Board in levying fees was not to secure funds for the support of secondary schools, but to create a greater seriousness in the minds of the students. Even until 1855, therefore, fees were not looked upon as a source of revenue for Secondary Education.

After the creation of the Department in 1855, fees came to be looked upon as a source of revenue. By this time, the popular demand for English education had increased very greatly. Not only was there a great rush of students for the English schools but the average pupil was also prepared to make some sacrifice for Secondary Education by paying fees, especially because the chances of securing a good job under Government after completing the secondary course were very bright. At the

* See Chapter III, Section 14.

same time, the Department was not able, for one reason or another, to secure the funds necessary for the expansion of Secondary Education from Government and consequently, it was very natural for it to decide to raise a larger revenue from fees. Between 1855 and 1882, therefore, the fees in Government schools were increased from time to time and the percentage of freestudentships was reduced from 20 to 5. The income from fees in Government secondary schools, therefore, increased very considerably and in 1881-82, fees contributed Rs. 1,48,150 to the total direct expenditure of Rs. 3,30,840 incurred on Government secondary schools. A similar development took place in private secondary schools also because, at this time, the amount of grant-in-aid to private schools was meagre and the non-Government secondary schools had to depend upon fees to a very great extent.

Between 1881 and 1911, the same policy was continued. During this period, however, no attempt was made to introduce a uniform rate of fees in all Government secondary schools and the usual practice adopted was to fix the rates in each school separately with reference to local conditions. But it may be stated that, on the whole, the fees were about rupee one per month in the middle school stage and about Rs. 2 to 3 in the high school stage. Prior to 1881, the managements of the private schools had full freedom to fix the fee-rates in their institutions. But the Indian Education Commission recommended that, in order to prevent unhealthy competition, the Department should determine (1) the rates of fees to be charged and (2) the percentage of freestudentships to be granted in private schools as well. This recommendation was accepted by Government and it was laid down that freestudentships in private secondary schools should not exceed 15 per cent. of the enrolment and that the approval of the Department should be obtained for the rates of fees to be charged in all aided schools. Consequently, the rates of fees in private schools generally began to increase in proportion to those in Government schools and the total revenue from fees showed an all-round increase.

In 1911, the Department made the first attempt to introduce a uniform rate of fees for all Government schools and the following rates were prescribed:—

Locality.		Standards. I—III	Standards. IV—V	Standards. VI—VII
		Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
Bombay City	...	2-8-0	3-8-0	4-8-0
Mofussil	...	1-8-0	2-8-0	4-0-0

The cost of education increased so greatly during the First and the Second World Wars that it was felt necessary to revise the fee rates in each

post-war period. Accordingly, the rates of fees in Government secondary schools were increased in 1921-22 as follows:—

TABLE No. 5 (11)

Revised Fee-Rates in 1921-22

Standards.		Bombay City.	Mofussil.
		Rs.	Rs.
I	...	3-0-0	2-0-0
II	...	3-0-0	2-8-0
III	...	4-0-0	2-8-0
IV	...	5-0-0	3-8-0
V	...	5-0-0	3-8-0
VI	...	6-0-0	5-0-0
VII	...	6-0-0	5-0-0

In 1911, it was also laid down that the fees in all recognised schools should be not less than two-thirds of those charged in Government schools of the locality. Consequently, the fees in private secondary schools also increased in proportion to the rise in the fee-rates of Government schools and the total revenue from fees in all secondary schools increased from Rs. 14,22,676 in 1911-12 (47 per cent. of the total direct expenditure on Secondary Education) to Rs. 1,44,09,890 in 1946-47 (64.4 per cent. of the total direct expenditure on Secondary Education).

In 1948-49, the minimum and maximum rates of fees to be charged in non-Government secondary schools were prescribed in detail. In Bombay City, these were fixed at Rs. 5 to Rs. 8; in areas of major Municipalities (i. e. Poona, Ahmedabad, Baroda, Surat, Sholapur and Hubli), they were fixed at Rs. 4 to Rs. 6 and for the remaining areas, they are fixed at Rs. 3 to Rs. 6. No school was allowed to transgress these limits without the permission of the Director, and no grant was paid to a school which charged fees at rates which exceeded $1\frac{1}{2}$ times the prescribed limits. As is obvious, the primary aim of these orders was to ensure a larger income from fees in order to enable the secondary schools to pay a better salary to their teachers.

As a result of these decisions, the total receipts from fees have risen from Rs. 1,44,09,890 in 1946-47 to Rs. 3,05,87,876 in 1954-55. But owing to the large increase in the State grants to secondary schools which has occurred during the same period, fees now account for 51.6 per cent. only of the total direct expenditure on Secondary Education.

The following table shows the increase that has taken place in the average fee collected per pupil between 1881-82 and 1954-55:—

TABLE No. 5 (12)
Average Fee per Pupil (1881-1955)

Year.	Number of Pupils on 31st March.	Amount of Fees collected.	Average fee per Pupil.
		Rs.	Rs.
1881-82	... 23,737	2,84,463	12.0
1886-87	... 38,064	4,82,383	12.7
1891-92	... 43,420	7,26,809	16.7
1896-97	... 36,164	8,39,588	23.2
1901-02	... 48,533	8,77,773	18.1
1906-07	... 57,988	10,58,107	18.1
1911-12	... 74,601	14,22,676	19.1
1916-17	... 70,550	16,99,319	24.1
1921-22	... 77,607	22,98,227	29.6
1926-27	... 1,00,294	35,16,996	35.1
1931-32	... 1,23,578	44,93,985	36.4
1936-37	... 1,27,087	47,12,517	37.1
1941-42	... 1,92,701	75,16,652	39.0
1946-47	... 2,85,020	1,44,09,890	50.9
1951-52	... 4,36,132	2,62,36,858	60.2
1953-54	... 4,44,197	2,77,60,566	62.5
1954-55	... 4,75,202	3,05,87,675	64.4

5 (16). *Grants-in-Aid*.—As stated earlier, the grants from State funds form the second important source for financing Secondary Education. These are utilised for three purposes, viz. (1) indirect expenditure on Secondary Education, (2) direct expenditure on Government secondary schools, and (3) grants-in-aid to non-Government secondary schools. The first of these will be dealt with in the appropriate context in this Review and the second has been discussed earlier in Section (10) of this Chapter. It is, therefore, necessary to deal here only with the third problem, i. e. grants-in-aid to non-Government secondary schools.

A—Prior to 1855

The Bombay Native Education Society, as stated earlier, conducted free English schools and did not also expect the people to make any contribution towards them. Its main object was to popularise English education among the people and it did not, therefore, desire to add to its difficulties by charging fees or by demanding public contributions. On the

other hand, the Society even tried to institute scholarships for poor students. In short, the Bombay Native Education Society maintained its English schools from its own funds and did not expect the people of the locality in which the school was established to contribute towards its expenditure.

The Board of Education made two fundamental changes in this policy. Firstly, it began to levy fees in its schools and, secondly, it expected that the people of the locality where an English school was established, would ordinarily contribute a part of its expenditure. "The first condition," it announced in 1845, "for establishing either a Vernacular or an English school is that sufficient zeal should be displayed by the Natives of the place, and the touch-stone of their zeal and sincerity in the cause is that they should come forward with their money as well as with their words."* This system was described as the "partially self-supporting system" and the Board tried its best to place all its English schools on this new basis under which the people of the locality would share with Government the responsibility of maintaining their local school. "We are of opinion" wrote the Board, "that this system is based on the only sound principle on which any national scheme of Education can be extensively and successfully carried out. All experience proves, that people do not truly value that which is obtained without some effort or some degree of self-sacrifice, and we decidedly think that the main object of Government should be to assist those alone who are willing to assist themselves. We are of opinion, therefore, that, sooner or later, it will be desirable to re-model the system on which the older schools were established, and to make it incumbent upon all Native Communities, who desire to retain the privilege of having a Government School, to defray one-half the expense."†

Prior to 1855, a number of mission secondary schools had come into existence. But it was the function neither of the Bombay Native Education Society nor of the Board of Education to give them any financial assistance. The East India Company might have done so; but it did not give any grant-in-aid to missions during this period, presumably on the ground of religious neutrality.

B—1855 to 1865

The first declaration of the policy of grant-in-aid was, therefore, officially made as late as in 1854 under the Wood's Education Despatch, which directed that Government should encourage all private enterprise by adopting a system of grant-in-aid and that, in awarding such grant, no notice whatsoever should be taken of the religious instruction given in a school. This proviso was obviously meant for the mission schools and the intention of the Despatch was to institute grants-in-aid to all private enterprise—missionary as well as Indian.

Between 1855 and 1865, however, a proper grant-in-aid system did not develop in this State. The first rules of grant-in-aid were prepared by

* Report of the Board of Education, 1845, p. 46.

† Ibid, 1854-55, p. 16.

This Code also introduced special grants-in-aid for salaries in addition to the grant for results and included a Section on grants for buildings. This liberal policy led to a rapid increase in the number of aided schools. But in 1876-77, the Grant-in-Aid Code was revised on financial grounds and the grant for Matriculation as well as for salaries was discontinued. In 1865-66, when the new system was first introduced, the total amount of grants-in-aid sanctioned was Rs. 54,945 (Rs. 52,569 as block grants and Rs. 2,376 for results). During the next fifteen years, the following grants were sanctioned for secondary schools:—

TABLE NO. 5 (13)
Award of Grants-in-aid (1871-81)

	High Schools.			Middle Schools.		
	1871	1876	1881	1871	1876	1881
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
Payments-by-results.	32,416	34,573	4,859	19,935	19,627	39,759
Buildings	334	20,089	14,018	...	11,700	...
Fixed grants	...	11,280	13,343	18,076	2,260	5,260
Other grants	2,750
Total	32,750	65,942	32,220	40,761	33,587	45,019

(Taken from the Report of the Bombay Provincial Committee of the Indian Education Commission, 1882, p. 53).

The Indian Education Commission made several important recommendations regarding the system of grant-in-aid. These included (1) the restriction of direct enterprise by Government to the minimum, (2) the acceptance of private secondary schools as partners of Government institutions in the cause of spreading education, (3) the award of more liberal grants-in-aid, and (4) non-interference with the internal management of the schools. These recommendations were broadly accepted by Government so that private enterprise in Secondary Education increased very greatly between 1884 and 1902. A new Grant-in-Aid Code was published in 1883-84 and although it did not alter the system of payment-by-results, nor the rates of grant-in-aid sanctioned in the Code of 1870-71, it generally helped to create a new atmosphere of friendly relationship on the lines recommended by the Commission.

It must be pointed out that all the Grant-in-Aid Codes published during the nineteenth century dealt with aided schools only, i. e., with those schools which voluntarily decided to accept grants-in-aid and, for that reason, submitted themselves to the control of the Department. It was quite open to a school not to seek aid from Government. If it chose to

do so, the only privilege it lost was that of obtaining financial assistance, but it was consequently able to retain a good deal of freedom also. Several schools of this period, therefore, decided to remain un-aided and the Department left them alone and made no attempt to interfere with their management or to control them.

The following table shows the amount of grant-in-aid given to private schools between 1881-82 and 1901-02:—

TABLE NO. 5 (14)
Award of Grants-in-Aid (1881-1901)

Year.	No. of Schools.	No. of Pupils.	Total amount of grant-in-aid.	Average grant per Pupil.
			Rs.	Rs.
1881-82.				
Aided	106	8,755	99,144	11.3
Un-aided	8	587
1886-87.				
Aided	156	17,665	2,15,459	12.2
Un-aided	16	1,881
1891-92.				
Aided	161	18,737	1,84,914	9.8
Un-aided	59	7,403
1896-97.				
Aided	188	13,980	2,41,659	17.2
Un-aided	60	2,835
1901-02.				
Aided	190	19,222	2,30,896	12.0
Un-aided	85	9,583

D—Fixed Grant System (1903-1937)

Under the lead given by Curzon, the system of payment-by-results which had dominated Secondary Education since 1865 was at last abandoned in 1903 and a new system which was a rather unusual combination of the Block Grant, Fixed-Period, and Proportional Grant Systems was adopted. The principal features of the new scheme would be understood from the following report by Mr. Lory:—

“It is laid down that the Government grant shall in no case exceed one-third of the total expenditure or one-half of the local assets for the previous year; this is the maximum grant, and this limit can never be exceeded. In assessing the grant the following six points are taken into consideration.

(1) Buildings and equipment, (2) Attendance, including regularity of attendance, (3) Adequacy and qualifications of teaching staff, (4) Range and quality of education given, (5) Discipline and conduct of students, (6) Provision for recreation and physical exercise.....On the principle that the efficiency of a school is usually in proportion of its expenditure, where grants have been assessed or re-assessed since the introduction of the new system the grants awarded have as a rule approximated to the maximum limit, unless a marked deficiency under any of the six heads detailed above necessitated a reduction. Thus, generally speaking, any school, the general efficiency of which could be classed as fair or better, has earned the maximum grant. It is not necessary that a school should ideally satisfy the requirements, and which are perfect in every respect. For perfection is unattainable, and due allowance has to be made for the difficulties against which Managers have to contend. On the other hand it is usual to look for a higher degree of efficiency in full-course High Schools, which are expected to possess adequate resources apart from their income from fees and Government grant than in small Anglo-Vernacular Schools, in the case of which such a requirement cannot reasonably be so strictly enforced and on whose behalf it is necessary to make full allowance for local conditions. It thus happens that the grants to High Schools do not as a rule so nearly approximate to the maximum amount as they do in the case of smaller Anglo-Vernacular Schools. Furthermore it is not admitted that any school can claim the maximum grant as a right, for consideration must be had for the amount of the funds at the disposal of Government, which are not adequate to provide for the award of maximum grants to all the large High Schools under private management, it being expected, as I have said above, that such schools shall have adequate resources of their own.....The grant once assessed is ordinarily continued to a school from year to year, if the conditions on which the grant was assessed are maintained. Re-assessment of the grant is admissible on the application of the Managers, provided that the Department recognises that the existing grant is inadequate, and has funds available to meet the application. Similarly, it is laid down in the Code that the grant will be reduced, after due warning being given, if it is found that the conditions on which the grant was assessed are not duly maintained and that the school has deteriorated in general efficiency. Before the payment of the grant from year to year it is required that the Inspector shall be satisfied that the school premises are healthy, well lighted and ventilated, and that they contain sufficient accommodation, furniture, and appliances for the instruction and recreation of the pupils attending them; that the arrangements for registering the admission, attendance, and age of pupils, for management and for keeping accounts of income and expenditure are not defective; that the discipline and behaviour of the pupils, especially their manners, and honesty under examination, are satisfactory; that the conditions on which the school was registered are duly maintained; and that all statistical returns and formal certificates given by the masters or school managers are trustworthy.”*

* Report of the Director of Public Instruction, Bombay, 1906-07, pp. 11-12.

This system was in force from 1903 to 1937 and the grants awarded under it are shown in the following table:—

TABLE No. 5 (15)
Award of Grants-in-Aid (1903-37)

Year.		No. of Schools.	No. of Pupils.	Total amount of grant-in-aid.	Average grant per Pupil.
				Rs.	Rs.
1906-07.					
	Aided	222	25,833	2,91,960	11.3
	Un-aided	81	9,609
1911-12.					
	Aided	245	33,672	3,36,760	10.0
	Un-aided	95	13,003
1916-17.					
	Aided	276	40,478	6,24,914	15.4
	Un-aided	99	14,807
1921-22.					
	Aided	309	51,081	11,51,139	22.5
	Un-aided	59	8,425
1926-27.					
	Aided	322	68,891	14,94,880	21.7
	Un-aided	67	12,015
1931-32.					
	Aided	355	84,393	14,70,802	17.4
	Un-aided	91	14,481
1936-37.					
	Aided	356	94,978	11,97,540	12.6
	Un-aided	75	12,770

It will be seen from the above table that there is a slight decrease in the amount of grant-in-aid given between 1906-07 and 1911-12, due mainly to the large increase in the number of students in aided schools. On account of the First World War the cost of living began to increase and steps were therefore, taken to give larger financial assistance to private schools. Accordingly, some supplementary grants were sanctioned to schools. These were not allowed to exceed one-third of the grant given under the ordinary rules and not less than two-thirds of it had to be utilised for improving the salaries of teachers. These and other measures of relief adopted at this time are reflected in the increase of the grant per pupil which rose to Rs. 15.4 in 1916-17 and Rs. 22.5 in 1921-22. Thereafter, there was a reduction in the grant awarded due to financial stringency caused by the difficulties of the post-war period and the world economic depression. Consequently, the average grant per pupil fell down to Rs. 21.7 in 1926-27, to Rs. 17.4 in 1931-32 and to Rs. 12.6 in 1936-37. In other words, the average grant awarded to private secondary schools in 1936-37 was practically the same as in 1901-02.

Another important development of this period was the adoption of the principle of "recognition" of schools.* Prior to 1903, as stated already, the Department controlled only the aided schools and the un-aided schools were left alone. But now every school was required to seek recognition and the rules were made so strict that it was next to impossible for an un-recognised school to exist. But recognition did not confer the right to receive a grant-in-aid and several recognised schools remained un-aided on the only ground that the funds at the disposal of the Department were inadequate. In other words, the un-aided schools of this period lost their earlier freedom and were subject to as minute a control of the Department as the aided schools without, however, obtaining any financial advantage.

This system of "fixed grants" was certainly an improvement over the older system of payment-by-results. But during the course of the three decades in which it was in operation, it developed an inequality of grant-in-aid as between old and new schools. The older and the more established schools generally received more liberal grants which approximated to the maximum limit of one-third of the expenditure prescribed by the Code. The newer schools were assisted only if funds became available either by way of savings or by way of an increased allotment from State funds. The usual experience, however, was that adequate funds were rarely available to meet the demands of the new schools which were being rapidly established during this period. Consequently, most of the new schools received grants which were much lower than those given to the older schools; and in several cases, they received merely token grants. It is generally agreed that a school requires large financial assistance during the earlier years when it is struggling to establish itself. But it was at this very period that a school was generally denied a grant-in-aid under this system.

E—Proportional and Special Grants (1937-55)

When the Popular Ministry came to power in 1937, the problem of grants-in-aid to private Secondary schools was taken up in right earnest. Realising that the problem of secondary Education in the State is practically equivalent to that of private secondary schools and that no worthwhile progress in Secondary Education can be possible unless and until the finances of the private secondary schools are placed on a satisfactory basis through a well-planned system of grant-in-aid, Government carried out a number of radical reforms in this field. The most important of these are summarised below:—

(1) *Proportional grants.*—As the efficiency of a secondary school is generally proportional to its expenditure, it was decided to accept the system of proportional grants and to give grants-in-aid to secondary schools at a prescribed percentage of their total approved expenditure during the preceding year. The acceptance of this principle also implied that the inequality of grants which then existed between the old and the new

schools would have to be abolished. It was, therefore, decided, in 1938-39, that equitable grants on a proportional basis should be given to all boys' schools at 20 per cent. of their approved expenditure and to all girls' schools at 25 per cent. of their approved expenditure. This reform was fully implemented within a few years and the grants of the schools which received more than this percentage were levelled down while those of the schools which received less than this percentage, were levelled up. As a measure of relief to the schools for the increase in the cost of living during the post-war period, these percentages were increased from time to time and at present, grants are given to secondary schools in Municipal areas at 30 per cent. of their approved expenditure and to secondary schools in rural areas at 33 1/3 per cent. of their approved expenditure.*

(2) *Grants on account of Staff.*—As the efficiency of a secondary school depends mainly on its staff, special reforms were introduced in order to give a reasonable remuneration and adequate old-age provision for teachers working in secondary schools. For this purpose, Government decided, on the recommendation of the Secondary Schools Committee, popularly known as the Ghatte-Parulekar Committee by the names of its two members, to introduce a common scale of pay for all secondary teachers, irrespective of the fact whether they served in a Government school or in a private school. Accordingly, the following scales were adopted with effect from 1st June, 1948:—

For Graduates with B.T.—Rs. 80-5-130-E.B.-6-160-8-200 (20 years).

For those who had passed Matriculation (with S.T.C. or T.D.)—Rs. 56-2-80-E.B.-4-120 (22 years).

Obviously, this is an important reform of far-reaching significance and it has removed the discrepancy that used to exist in the past between the pay scale given to a teacher in a Government secondary school and that given to a teacher in a private secondary school.

Government has also directed that dearness allowance should be given to all members of the staff of a private secondary school at the same rate at which it is given to Government employees of a similar cadre. A special grant at 50 per cent. of the expenditure incurred by the private schools on this account is being made at present.

Similarly, Government has also introduced a scheme of provident fund for secondary teachers. Under its provisions, all employees of private secondary schools are required to contribute to a provident fund at the rate of one anna in the rupee of their salary and the management is required to contribute half of this amount. Both these contributions are deposited monthly in the Postal Savings Bank in an account opened by the school for the person concerned and, at the time of his retirement, Government pays one-third of the accumulated amount standing to his credit.

* This increase in the rate of grants came as a result of the recommendations of the Secondary Schools Committee. The ordinary maintenance grant, however, is to be given to a school if the standard of instruction maintained in it is satisfactory. It is open to the Department, however, to introduce penal cuts in this grant if the efficiency of the school is shown to be low by such indications as poor results at the S. S. C. Examination, breach of Departmental rules, irregularities in management, etc.

* For details, see Chapter I.



The results of the reforms introduced by the Popular Ministry are clearly seen in the above table. The total provision for the grants-in-aid to secondary schools has increased from Rs. 11,97,540 in 1936-37 to Rs. 1,81,43,591 in 1954-55 and the grant per pupil has increased from Rs. 9.7 in 1941-42 to Rs. 42.0 in 1954-55.

5 (17). *Medium of Instruction*.—So far four major problems of Secondary Education have been discussed, viz., the relationship of Secondary Education with other stages of instruction, the growth of secondary schools, agencies of management, and finance. We shall now turn to the discussion of the two principal evils which have thwarted the development of Secondary Education on proper lines during the last 135 years, viz., (1) the domination of English and (2) the domination of examinations in general and of the Matriculation in particular.

(a) *Medium of Instruction prior to 1855*.—Prior to 1855, there were three types of institutions for general education in the State, viz., Colleges, English schools, and vernacular schools. It is often assumed that the English and vernacular schools of this period correspond respectively with the secondary and primary schools of to-day. A closer examination will, however, show that this assumption is not correct and that both the English and the vernacular schools of this period should properly be regarded as secondary schools teaching through different media. The object of both types of schools was the same—to spread Western science and literature. When this was attempted through the medium of the English language, the institution was called an “English school”; and when it was attempted through a modern Indian language, the institution was called a “vernacular school.” The main subjects taught in both the schools were practically the same, viz., mathematics, history and geography and science, the only differences being that the English schools taught English language and literature a subject which was not included at all in the curriculum of vernacular schools—and maintained a higher standard of education than the vernacular schools. But in spite of these differences, the general position remains unaltered, and both the English and vernacular schools of this period have to be regarded as secondary institutions.

(b) *Medium of Instruction (1855-1902)*.—The Despatch of 1854 clearly realised this similarity between the English and the vernacular schools and recommended that secondary schools teaching through the medium of English as well as of the modern Indian languages should be developed side by side. Its actual recommendation is as follows:—

“We include these Anglo-Vernacular and Vernacular Schools in the same class, because we are unwilling to maintain the broad line of separation which at present exists between schools in which the media for imparting instruction differ. The knowledge conveyed is no doubt, at the present time, much higher in the Anglo-Vernacular than in the Vernacular Schools; but the difference will become less marked, and the latter more efficient as the gradual enrichment of the Vernacular languages in works of education allows their schemes of study to be enlarged, and as a more numerous class of school masters is raised up, able to impart a superior education.”

Had this directive been followed by the later administrators, two types of secondary schools maintaining an equal standard of efficiency would have developed, one teaching through English as a medium of instruction and another using the modern Indian languages as media. Howard tried his best, not only to work out this concept, but even to go a step ahead and started two "Vernacular Colleges" at Poona and Ahmedabad.* But Sir Alexander Grant was so greatly struck by the paucity of books in modern Indian languages that it deterred him from continuing the earlier experiments of developing education through the medium of modern Indian languages. The Vernacular Colleges were closed under his orders; it was also at his initiative that the study of the modern Indian languages was removed from the University courses; and it was he who simplified the curriculum of the primary schools to such an extent that, in 1865-66, they came to consist of four standards only. In other words, Sir Alexander Grant abandoned the concept of developing secondary schools which used the regional languages as media of instruction and converted the old "vernacular school" which functioned at the secondary level into an "elementary school" which gave instruction in the three R's and prepared students for the Anglo-Vernacular or secondary schools.

With these changes made by Grant, the secondary or Anglo-Vernacular school came to be dominated excessively by English. It is true that, in most middle schools of this period, both English and the mother-tongue were studied side by side. But even here, the importance given to English was so great that the study of the mother-tongue was mostly neglected in practice. In the high school stage, the place of the mother-tongue was generally taken by a classical language; and the importance attached to English increased still further because it was studied not only as a subject but also used as a medium of instruction.

Prior to 1881-82, there was no clear policy as to when English should begin to be used as a medium of instruction. The actual practice varied from school to school and the decision mainly depended upon the desire of the headmaster concerned. But on a recommendation made by the Indian Education Commission a uniform policy was adopted in this matter after 1882. In the middle school stage, English was taught as a subject only and was not used as a medium of instruction. In the high school stage, however, it was invariably used as a medium of instruction throughout the course.

It should not be assumed that this change implied any diminution in the importance attached to the study of English in secondary schools. In fact, the Department was very keen throughout this period, to see that a good standard in the teaching of English was maintained in all secondary schools. Consequently, the teaching of English dominated the entire secondary course between 1865 and 1902. About one-third of the time of the students was regularly devoted to the study of English as a subject; and its use as a medium compelled him to devote a good deal of additional time to master the language to the required degree of efficiency. In fact, it was often a matter of doubt whether students were

* For details, see Chapter VI.

taught subjects like history and geography through English or whether they were being taught English only by using the text-books in different subjects merely as a means to an end. A failure in English was rarely condoned in examinations and a proficiency in English was such an asset in after life that the students generally concentrated more on the study of English than on that of any other subject or subjects in the curriculum. Throughout this period, therefore, the one main object of the secondary course was to teach the English language and every other educational objective such as the development of general knowledge, improvement of physical well-being, or development of character was thrust in the background.

(c) *Medium of Instruction (1902-1922).*—Owing to the national awakening in the country, public opinion began to be slowly organised against this domination of English in the secondary course and a demand began to be put forward for the adoption of modern Indian languages as media of instruction at the secondary stage. A controversy on the subject thus began in the early years of the present century. But although the subject was almost continuously discussed, the differences of opinion were so great that no definite decision could be reached.

The official view was in favour of continuing English as a medium of instruction at the high school stage. In fact, the officials felt that the standard of English was already very low and that it was necessary to increase the emphasis on the teaching of English rather than diminish it. In their own way, therefore, they attempted to secure this objective by adopting several reforms. Newer methods of teaching, such as the direct method, were introduced; as far as possible, only trained teachers were appointed to teach English; the teaching of English in the lower standards was put in the hands of the most competent teachers available in the school; prescription of text-books or their abolition, the raising of the minimum percentage of marks required for passing, adoption of stricter standards of examination, etc., were also tried. But none of these reforms succeeded in raising the standard of English in secondary schools, and their only tangible result was to increase the unhappiness of the average student and the general extent of wastage in the system of Secondary Education as a whole.

The non-official view was divided. One section pleaded for the continuance of English on two sets of grounds. The first set included the advantages resulting from a study of English such as international contacts, and richness of available literature; and the second set included the practical difficulties involved in adopting modern Indian languages as media of instruction such as lack of text-books, absence of scientific terminology and the failure to evolve a national language. The other section opposed the domination of English on cultural grounds and claimed that all the alleged difficulties in the way of adopting the modern Indian languages as media of instruction could be easily overcome and that all the advantages of a knowledge of English could be secured by merely prescribing its study as a compulsory subject. But during this period, this national viewpoint had not gained sufficiently in importance to give practical effect to its implications.

(d) *Medium of Instruction (1922-1955).*—Matters changed considerably when Education was transferred to Indian control in 1921. The problem was again taken up and in 1926, it was decided that students at the Matriculation should be given the option to answer the question-papers in history and classical languages in their mother-tongue. Such, however, is the lethargy of habit that only a few students availed themselves of this option in the early years. But very soon, the advantages of exercising the option were realised and students began to avail themselves of this facility in ever increasing numbers.

This change in the media of examinations led, in its turn, to a change in the media of teaching and the schools gradually began to teach these subjects through the modern Indian languages. Text-books on the subjects were soon prepared and English ceased to be the medium of instruction in these subjects within a short time.

This reform broke the ice and consequently further progress was both easy and rapid. Pressure now began to be exerted from three different directions. On the one hand, the Department took a lead in the matter and began to recommend that teaching of subjects like geography or mathematics should be done through modern Indian languages, at least till the end of Standard V. Consequently, English ceased to be the medium of instruction in Standards IV and V in all subjects by about 1931-32. Secondly, pressure also came from the schools in the mofussil, where the standard of English was generally low, and which in consequence, were more eager to adopt the modern Indian languages as media of instruction than the urban schools. Thirdly, the opinion in the University also began to change and in the new Matriculation course introduced in 1936-37, the option to answer question-papers in the mother-tongue was extended to a larger number of subjects. As a result of all these forces, the modern Indian languages came to be accepted by 1941-42, as media of instruction in all subjects even in Standards VI and VII. By 1946-47, therefore, the problem of the medium of instruction may be said to have disappeared finally from the field of Secondary Education.

(e) *Reducing the Importance of English as a subject of study.*—The decision to abandon the use of English as a medium of instruction or examination naturally reduced the domination of English to a very great extent. But English still remained the most important subject in the curriculum. It was taught compulsorily in all Standards from I to VII, and the time devoted to its study was much greater than that given to any other subject. It was, therefore, felt that unless this domination is reduced still further, a proper teaching of the other subjects in the curriculum would not be possible. Besides, Government desired to introduce the study of Hindi, the national language, as a compulsory subject and also to introduce the teaching of craft in order to bring about a more harmonious development of the personality of the child. It was found that provision for the teaching of these subjects could hardly be made without reducing the time allotted to the study of English. After a careful examination of the problem, therefore, Government decided, in 1948, to remove the teaching of English from Standards I, II, and III of the secondary course. Though this reform met with a strong opposition from several

quarters in its early days, its beneficial nature came to be gradually accepted and the public welcomed the idea that English should be studied as a subject in Standards IV-VII only.

Another change was also introduced at this time. Prior to 1936-37, it was impossible to conceive of a secondary course without English. In 1938, however, a revolutionary suggestion came from the More Committee which recommended that there need be no inseparable relationship between Secondary Education and English and suggested that a new institution, called the Lokashala should be established for imparting a three years' course after the P. S. C. Examination which would be equivalent to Matriculation *minus* English *plus* a craft. Accordingly, some Lokashalas were started by Government. They have an ideological value as the first experiment made in this State, after 1865, to provide a secondary course which did not include the study of English. But unfortunately, they did not become popular. Hence the principle underlying them was introduced in the new S. S. C. Examination organised in 1949. In this examination, a large variety of subjects was provided and the only compulsory subject was the mother-tongue. Consequently, it now became possible for any student to complete the secondary course without being required to pass an examination in English. This new principle reduced the domination of English over the secondary course still further.

It may, therefore, be said that English no longer dominates the secondary course as it did in the past. This does not, of course, imply that it has lost its importance altogether. It is still a compulsory subject of study for those who desire to proceed to the university because the medium of instruction at the university stage is still English. But as English will be replaced as a medium of instruction at the university stage by Hindi or the regional language, the emphasis on the study of English at the secondary stage will be reduced still further; and the process will be completed when English will also cease to be used as a language in Government offices so that persons seeking employment under Government will also be freed from the present compulsion to study it. Within a few years, therefore, it is expected that English may be a more or less optional subject of study in secondary schools and will be taken up only by those who desire to pursue their studies in English and those who otherwise wish to avail themselves of its great cultural and international advantages.

5 (18). *Examinations.*—The second evil which has thwarted the proper development of Secondary Education is the domination of examinations.

In 1828-29 the Bombay Native Education Society introduced scholarships in its English schools and, in their wake, came the system of examinations. But these early examinations were comparatively a simple affair and did not attract much attention. The Board of Education, however, made examinations a permanent and important part of the educational system. Under the regulations framed by the Board, each school had two examinations every year. The first was a school examination; and it was to be followed by a public examination which

was to be held in an important public building and in the presence of some important guest and prominent citizens of the locality. The object of these public examinations was to introduce the new type of education to the people and to popularise it. Consequently, the Board attached great importance to its public examinations which were often attended by the highest authorities in the country not excluding the Governor himself.

After the creation of the Department in 1855, the importance of examinations increased still further. In 1857-58, Howard introduced an annual examination of all English schools to be conducted by means of printed question-papers issued from the office of the Director. This was the beginning of the external and mechanical examinations which became a very prominent feature of the system within a few years. In 1859, the first Matriculation Examination was held by the University. Thereafter it was held every year and, within a short time, it came to dominate the entire secondary course because it was the only channel of entrance to the University. In 1865-66, the system of payment-by-results was introduced. In order to assess the grant-in-aid due to a school under this system, the inspecting officer was required to examine *every* student in *every* subject. Consequently, the examinations by inspecting officers also came to dominate Secondary Education because the very existence of the schools depended upon the grants assessed. This harmful system was in force till 1903 and throughout this period Secondary Education became more examination-ridden than at any other time. In 1866-67 a Public Service Examination for the recruitment of clerks to English offices began to be held at the end of the middle school course. This examination also was held annually till 1904-05 when it was abolished. In 1889, a School Final Examination was organised as an alternative to the Matriculation and it continued to be held till 1929-30. Another S. L. C. Examination was organised for the vocational high schools in 1943 and in 1949 a Lokashala Examination was instituted. In 1949, a new S. S. C. Examination was organised to replace all the older examinations at the end of the secondary course.

It will be seen from the above account that a very large number of examinations have dominated the secondary course during the last 125 years. But some of them need no detailed enquiry; and it would serve the purpose of this study to give the necessary information about the following six Examinations: (1) Matriculation Examination; (2) Public Service Examination; (3) School Final Examination; (4) School Leaving Certificate Examination; (5) Lokashala Examination; and (6) Secondary School Certificate Examination.

5 (19). *The Matriculation Examination*.—The University of Bombay was established in 1857 and it held its first Matriculation Examination in 1859. It must be remembered that, for this Examination not only all the students from the highest standard of the English schools but also all the students of the so-called colleges of the day were made to appear. But in spite of such promising material, the result was very poor. "All the Elphinstone School boys failed; all the Poona School boys failed; all other school boys in the Presidency also failed; and only college-men

passed the test."* Howard who was an examiner at the first Matriculation Examination, wrote that the number of passes "would probably have been more than twice as great, but for the startling fact, that every Parsee, without exception, was plucked (by a Hindoo and a European Examiner) for ignorance of Gujarati, his own vernacular dialect. In other branches the standard was certainly high as regards accuracy. I examined in English with the Rev. Mr. Fletcher, and passed no paper which contained three palpable mistakes of spelling or grammar"†. The tradition thus set by the first examiners continued to dominate the Matriculation Examination for the next twenty years. The standard adopted for a subject was strict, but it was even more so in so far as English was concerned. Consequently, the percentage of passes remained very poor throughout this period.

Several protests were made against the strict results of the Bombay Matriculation which compared unfavourably with the Matriculations conducted by Madras and Calcutta Universities‡. For example, the plucking of every Parsee in his own mother-tongue in the first Matriculation Examination was even noticed by Government who passed a special Resolution on the subject. "With respect to the Parsee Gujarati," wrote the Secretary to Government in the Resolution dated 5th October, 1863, to which Mr. Howard has alluded, and to the Matriculation Examination in which a number of Parsees, some of them young men of great abilities, were rejected for want of proper acquaintance with (to adopt Mr. Howard's phrase), 'Hindoo Gujarati,' the Honourable the Governor-in-Council holds a very clear opinion. Without wishing in the slightest degree to reflect on the examiners, who acted in accordance with their impressions of duty, the Honourable the Governor-in-Council thinks there was a misapprehension. It was not as if the question related to an academic distinction—the reward of proficiency in the Gujarati language. In that case the examiners could rightly have insisted upon absolutely pure Gujarati, such Gujarati being of the essence of the discussion. What the Examiners had really to decide was, whether the candidates had that general degree of proficiency in their own language which would enable them to profit by the teaching of the University. To reject an intelligent Parsee, because he did not speak and write Gujarati like a Hindoo, would be, as if Sir Walter Raleigh were refused admission to Oriel, because he spoke broad Devonsh which he did to the day of his execution; or Adam Smith to Balliol because he differed from his tutors as to the appropriate allocation of 'will' and 'shall'.

Similarly, protests were made by the schools and by non-official quarters and almost a veritable storm broke out between 1869 and 1871 when the results were extremely poor. But all such protests were hardly of any avail. The University authorities as well as the Department came

* Report of the Bombay Provincial Committee of the Indian Education Commission, Volume I, p. 21.

† Report of the Director of Public Instruction, Bombay, 1859-60, p. 39.

‡ A comparison of the Matriculation results of the three Universities for the period 1859-69 showed that in Calcutta the result was 50 per cent. and in Madras 60 per cent.

to the conclusion that these poor results were not due to any defect in the examination system but that they indicated the generally low standard of efficiency maintained in the secondary schools. Moreover, a view began to be put forward that it was the duty of the University to maintain a high standard and that strict results were the surest indication of the fact that such standards were being maintained. As the Vice-Chancellor of the University observed in 1879: "It will be seen that while in the first ten years the ratio of successful students was about one-fourth, the same proportion has been maintained during the succeeding eight years. Our great object has been to prevent in the first place Matriculation and afterwards the attainment of degrees being made too easy. We have preferred comparatively a few highly trained men to a multitude of an inferior quality. I trust that when another decade draws to a close when one of my successors may have to submit a similar review, that the result may be, especially as to standards, equally satisfactory."*

This view continued to dominate the Matriculation even in the following years and consequently the results did not show any material improvement during the next twenty-five years and averaged between 28 and 34 per cent. only. The number of candidates appearing for the Examination varied from 1,093 in 1879-80 to 3,634 in 1903-04. The number of girls also began to appear for the Matriculation during this period. The earliest statistics available are those for 1883-84 when 13 girls appeared and 8 passed. In 1903-04, these numbers rose to 87 and 49 respectively. The percentage of passes was lowest in 1886-87 (21.5 per cent.) and highest in 1884-85 when it stood at 41.3 per cent.

One important reform carried out during this period was to hold the Matriculation Examination at different centres in the State. Between 1859 and 1876, the Matriculation was held at only one centre, *viz.*, Bombay, and it was a proud boast of the University that candidates came to this examination "from Sind and Gujarat in the North, the Berars on the North-East, and the confines of Madras on the South." As a concession to the students in the mofussil, the English Paper only was set at five centres—Poona, Nasik, Belgaum, Ahmedabad and Karachi—in 1877 and only those students who had passed in English were asked to go to Bombay for the remaining examination. As might be expected, this procedure resulted in great delay and waste of time and protests were sent from several mofussil schools. The University authorities, therefore, ordered that the whole examination should be held at one centre in each division. Consequently, the Matriculation Examination began to be held at Bombay, Poona, Belgaum, Ahmedabad, and Karachi from 1878.

The above example of holding only the examination in English at the mofussil centres will show the extreme importance that was attached at this time to a proficiency in English. Throughout this period it was the practice of the University to examine the English Paper first; and the remaining papers were examined only if the candidate concerned obtained a pass in English. The object of this expedient was primarily to save some money; but it shows how English continued to dominate the entire examination system. In fact, it was a common joke during this period

to say that one had "to pass the English Channel" to enter the University. As may be anticipated, the net effect of this policy on the teaching in secondary schools was disastrous. The attention of the teacher and of the pupil alike began to be concentrated on English alone; and the other subjects in the curriculum were regarded as mere adjuncts to be attended to, if and when English had had its fill.

The pity of the matter was that in spite of this concentration on the teaching of English and the rigid standard of examination adopted in the subject, the college authorities complained, almost continuously, that the standard of English maintained at the Matriculation was not satisfactory. In 1879, the Vice-Chancellor of the University observed: "My own opinion inclines to making the English portion of the examination more searching and more practical and reducing the importance and the number of the other subjects. There is no doubt that one of the greatest difficulties the student finds on joining the colleges is to understand the lectures and the text-books."* Even twenty years later, another Vice-Chancellor had no better comments to make. In 1891, Mr. Justice Birdwood observed: "There can be no question that this examination which every year assumes larger proportion.....is, in the judgment of many who are well able to form a sound opinion on that point, a gigantic failure. School boys who have passed the Matriculation in order to enter a college not infrequently find themselves unable to understand the lectures which they attend. The Matriculation Examination, in short, furnishes a very insufficient test of a knowledge of English.....The examination, as at present conducted, fulfils most imperfectly the one function for which it exists (i. e. examination of candidates in English)."[†]

The following table shows the results of the Matriculation Examination during the next period of twenty-five years.

TABLE No. 5 (17)

Matriculation Results (1904-29)

Quinquennium.	No. appeared.	No. passed.	Percentage of Passes. =
1904-05 to 1908-09	... 17,629	7,278	41.3
1909-10 to 1913-14	... 20,418	9,404	46.0
1914-15 to 1917-18	... 18,121	7,509	41.4
1918-19 to 1922-23	... 22,458	12,113	53.9
1923-24 to 1929-30	... 51,748	23,448	45.3

N. B.—The number of students appearing for the Matriculation increased to 3,634 in 1929-39 (which included 420 girls).

* S. Rau: Convocation Addresses, Bombay and Madras, p. 109.

† Ibid, p. 257.

* S. Rau: Convocation Addresses, Bombay and Madras, p. 107.

It will be seen from the above table that there has been a distinct improvement in the Matriculation results during this period. This was due to several reasons. In the first place, the old system of allowing "private" candidates to appear for the Matriculation Examination was discontinued from 1906-07. Prior to this date, a student could appear for the Matriculation Examination either through a regular high school or as a private candidate, in which case he had only to produce a certificate of character from a respectable gentleman. Most of these private candidates were not adequately prepared for the Examination and, consequently, the percentage of failures among them was very large. This affected the total percentage of passes and brought it down. In 1906-07, therefore, the University prohibited private candidates from appearing for the Matriculation Examination and thenceforward, only recognised schools were allowed to send candidates to the Examination. This reform led to an immediate fall in the number of candidates appearing for the Examination but it was soon made up and as all candidates for the Examination now came from recognised schools,* the percentage of passes began to show a noticeable improvement.

Secondly, the improved results were also due to the general improvement in the efficiency of secondary schools which was brought about during this period. The stricter conditions of recognition imposed upon the schools as a result of the new policy enunciated by Curzon, the improvement brought about in the finances of secondary schools through increase in fee rates, larger grants-in-aid, and more liberal contribution from the public, the training of teachers through the Secondary Training College, Bombay, which was established in 1906, revision of curricula, more effective inspection and supervision—these and such other reforms introduced during this period in the field of Secondary Education, naturally resulted in raising the efficiency of secondary schools and this was reflected in the better results seen at the Matriculation at this time.

But probably the most important cause which led to an improvement in these results was a change of outlook on the part of the examining authorities. Prior to 1918, the University was in sole charge of this examination which was consequently conducted by professors who had little experience of the practical conditions in secondary schools. Educational Inspectors and headmasters or assistant masters in high schools were never associated with the Examination. These conditions naturally

* The expression "recognised schools" used here means schools recognised by the University. Under the Indian Universities' Act, 1904, the Bombay University framed regulations for recognition of schools, the privilege of recognition conferring upon the school the right to present candidates for the Matriculation Examination. These regulations were brought into force in 1906-07 and thus began a system of dual control under which the schools were required to submit to the control of the Department as well as of the University. In practice, this did not lead to any serious difficulty. In the State proper, all the schools recognised by the Department were recognised by the University without any difficulty. Similarly, in areas like those of Indian States or Goa, where the Department had no jurisdiction, the University had its own agency for the inspection and recognition of secondary schools. But a few cases of conflict did arise in which schools which were refused recognition by the Department were given recognition by the University. But the number of such cases was very small and, on the whole, it may be said that the system of dual recognition worked fairly smoothly in practice.

created a gulf between the actual teaching in secondary schools and the conduct of the Examination. In 1919, therefore, a very important decision was taken by establishing a *Joint Examination Board*. This body consisted of ten members of whom five (including the Chairman) were elected by the Senate of the Bombay University, three were nominated by Government, and two school masters of recognised schools in the State were to be co-opted by the eight members mentioned above. "By the constitution of the Board," wrote its Secretary, "a wider touch has been established between the controlling authorities and the schools which it superintends.....The admission of Head Masters of Schools to the various Boards of Examiners places the Examination in line with the actual teaching and wide gulf which might have existed between what the students were actually taught and what they were examined in, has narrowed to some extent. Above all, the presence on the Board of Headmasters and Inspectors of Schools, familiar with the exact nature of the capacity of the minds and the time of students and the attainment to be expected from them forms a connecting link between the Board and the Schools and acts as a safeguard against the imposition of any undue standard in regard to knowledge or examination."* It must also be pointed out that school teachers were appointed as examiners at the Matriculation only after this Board was constituted and not before. It is, therefore, easy to see that the constitution of the Joint Examination Board, which was a precursor of the present S. S. C. Examination Board, created an atmosphere which was more suitable for the holding of an examination like the Matriculation serving the double purpose of a School Leaving Examination on the one hand and an Entrance Examination to the University on the other. Consequently, the results show a general improvement after 1918. The situation would have improved even more greatly in later years had the Board been continued and organised on improved lines. But it was unfortunately abolished in 1929 and the conduct of the Matriculation Examination was again entrusted to the University. This change, however, did not mean a complete regression. Under the Bombay University Act, 1928, the secondary schools were represented on the Senate of the Bombay University itself. Consequently the tradition of associating secondary teachers with the Matriculation Examination which was created by the Joint Examination Board survived even after 1930, although adequate representation was not always given to the teachers.

In 1930, the number of centres had increased still further to 13 and the Examination was now held in almost all the important cities. This was a great convenience to the students, although every district in the State did not yet have an examination centre.

The last phase of the Matriculation Examination began in 1930 and came to an end in 1948 when the S. S. C. Examination was introduced

* Report of the Director of Public Instruction, Bombay, 1921-22, pp. 41-42.

under the Bombay S. S. C. Examination Act, 1948. The following table gives the statistics of results between 1930 and 1948:—

TABLE No. 5 (18)

Matriculation Results (1930-47)

Quinquennium.		Number appeared.	Number passed.	Per- centage of passes.
1930-31 to 1934-35	...	65,322	28,867	44.2
1935-36 to 1939-40	...	82,547	34,509	41.8
1940-41 to 1944-45	...	98,558	48,886	49.6
1945-46 to 1947-48	...	88,629	40,210	45.4

The number of candidates appearing for the Matriculation Examination increased considerably during this period and in 1947-48, it stood at 32,035 (which included 5,432 girls). It will also be seen from the above table that the results were generally steady between 40 and 45 per cent. This cannot be described as a very satisfactory state of affairs. It must be pointed out, however, that the Bombay Matriculation has always been maintained as one of the strictest examinations at this level.

It must also be stated that the number of centres was increased to 29 in 1947-48 and every district in the State now had at least one examination centre. This reform was made possible partly by the increase in the number of students appearing for the Examination and partly by the increasing anxiety of the University authorities to provide for the convenience of the candidates.

5 (20). *Public Service Examination (1866-1905).*—In 1866 a Public Service Examination* was introduced for the recruitment of clerks to the English offices. The standard of attainment fixed for this purpose was Anglo-Vernacular Standard III. The Examination was held separately for each school by the Educational Inspector whenever he happened to visit it and a certificate of having passed the Public Service Examination (I Class) was issued to such students as passed the test. In 1871-72, Peile started the practice of holding this examination centrally in each district once every year. It was supervised by the Educational Inspector of the division who also issued the certificate of passing. At the same time, he raised the standard of the examination to Anglo-Vernacular Standard V.

* This was called the Public Service Examination (I Class) to distinguish it from the Public Service Examination for clerks in vernacular offices which was described as Public Service Examination (II Class). An account of the latter will be found in Chapter III, Section (17).

The following table shows the number of candidates who appeared for this examination in a few selected years between 1866 when it was first held and 1904-05 when it was finally abolished:—

TABLE No. 5 (19)

Public Service Examination at the end of the Middle School Course (1866-1905)

Year.	No. of candidates appeared.	No. of candidates. passed.
1870-71		318
(The last year of the old course introduced in 1866).		
1871-72		139
(The first year of the new course introduced by Peile).		
1876-77	1,121	292
1881-82	671	274
1886-87	931	196
1891-92	836	276
1896-97	706	377
1901-02	895	394

This examination continued to be called Public Service Examination (I Class) until 1889 when the University School Final Examination was introduced. From that year this examination came to be described as Public Service Examination (II Grade) because the University School Final Examination was deemed to be a Public Service Examination of the 1st Grade.

It will be seen from the above statistics that this examination was neither important nor popular. But it served a fairly useful purpose as a recruiting test for clerks in the English offices of Government.

5 (21). *School Final Examination (1889-1930).*—The Indian Education Commission came to the conclusion that the secondary course was predominantly academic and that it was greatly dominated by the Matriculation Examination. It, therefore, recommended that "a modern side" should be introduced in secondary schools with the object of diverting students to various practical walks of life and that, for this purpose, there should be two divisions in the upper classes of the high schools "one leading to the entrance examination of the universities, the other of a more practical character, intended to fit youths for commercial or non-literary pursuits." The Commission further recommended that an

examination, alternative to the Matriculation, should be instituted for the requirements of the diversified courses introduced at the secondary stage and that it should be accepted as a test for public service but not for entrance to the University.* These recommendations were accepted by Government and a "School Final Examination" was instituted in 1889 and its conduct was entrusted to the Bombay University.

The Indian Universities Commission of 1902 laid down that (1) the conduct of a school final or other school examinations should be entirely outside the functions of a university, that (2) universities would benefit if the Matriculation were no longer accepted as a test for service under Government and if a school final examination were substituted as qualifying for admission to professional examinations, and that (3) it would be advantageous if the school final could be made a complete or at least a partial test of fitness to enter upon a university career.

Of these three recommendations, the first two were soon carried into effect. The third was not accepted by the Bombay University because it aimed at depriving the University of its control over the course of studies in the higher classes of secondary schools. Accordingly, the Department took charge of the School Final Examination in 1904. Some changes in the curriculum were carried out with the object of popularising the Examination and a further reform was introduced by declaring that the School Final alone, and *not* the Matriculation, would qualify a candidate for Government service.

In 1919, the conduct of the Examination was entrusted to the Joint Examination Board to which a reference has already been made. It was conducted by the Board till 1930 when the Examination was finally abolished.

The following table shows the number of students who appeared at this examination and passed it in a few selected years between 1889 and 1930:—

TABLE No. 5 (20)
School Final Examination (1889-1930)

Year.	No. appeared.	No. passed.
1889-90	505	146
1891-92	1,267	364
1896-97	1,416	255
1901-02	1,162	308
1904-05	503	126
1906-07	681	274
1911-12	1,717	677
1916-17	1,167	528
1918-19	1,090	294
1921-22	1,278	399
1925-26	1,428	612
1926-27	2,669	1,002
1929-30	3,944	1,534

* Report of the Indian Education Commission, 1882, p. 254.

During its life of about 40 years the Examination had four different names. Between 1889 and 1904, it was generally known as the "University School Final Examination"; between 1904 and 1918, it was known as the "School Final Examination"; between 1919 and 1924, it was known as "School Leaving Certificate Examination for the purposes of Government Service"; and after 1925, it came to be known as the "School Leaving Examination for the purposes of Government Service."

It will be seen from the above table that this examination never became popular and was not able to reduce the domination of the Matriculation Examination in any way. Except between 1904 and 1918 when the Examination was conducted by the Department, the same agency was responsible for the conduct of both the Matriculation and the alternative Examination. Consequently, the regulations were generally so framed that it was possible for a candidate to appear at and pass both the Examinations simultaneously. Therefore, a large majority of the students who appeared for this examination also appeared for the Matriculation; and it is probable that if this concession would not have been there, they would have preferred to appear for the Matriculation alone. It may, therefore, be concluded that this experiment did not succeed and that the Matriculation Examination continued to dominate the secondary course as in the past.

It was in this examination that the Department first allowed the candidates to use the regional languages as the media of instruction and examination. This step indirectly brought the pressure on the University to allow the same concession at the Matriculation Examination. This was probably the one significant contribution which this examination made to the educational system of this State.

5 (22). *School Leaving Certificate Examination (1943-48).*—In 1938-39 Government decided to introduce diversified courses in secondary schools and accordingly started a number of vocational high schools under its direct control. Assistance was also given to private enterprise to provide for the teaching of these courses. The Matriculation Examination, as conducted by the University at this period, did not provide for the examination of these diversified courses. Government, therefore, decided to conduct a separate examination for the students of these vocational high schools. The examination was called "School Leaving Certificate Examination" and a special Board was appointed to conduct it. It included a large variety of subjects within its curriculum. Every student had to appear in English and in regional language as compulsory subjects and was required to choose not less than four other subjects from at least two of the five Groups into which the different subjects (which numbered more than 60) of the Examination were divided. It was also laid down that at least one out of the four subjects selected should be from Group III (Classical or Modern European Languages) or Group IV (Mathematics, Science, etc.).

The first examination was held in 1943 and was open to the students of the vocational high schools only. From 1944, however, it was also thrown open to the students of all high schools and it was found that a fairly large number of students availed themselves of this option.

The following table gives the results of this examination:—

TABLE NO. 5 (21)

School Leaving Certificate Examination (1943-48)

Year.	No. Appeared.	No. Passed.	Percentage of Passes.
1942-43	107	47	43.9
1943-44	1,189	333	36.4
1944-45	934	272	29.1
1945-46	984	419	42.6
1946-47	1,467	815	55.6
1947-48	3,167	1,559	49.2

Students who had passed this examination with the technical, agricultural, or commercial courses were declared eligible for admission to the science and commercial courses of the University. If they wanted to join the arts courses, they had to pass an examination of the Matriculation standard in a classical or modern European language.

On the institution of the S. S. C. Examination in 1949 this examination was abolished as it was no longer necessary.

5 (23). *Lokashala Examination*.—As stated in Chapter III, the More Committee recommended the establishment of *Lokashalas* which would provide a three year course after the P. S. C. Examination. The standard to be attained in this course was defined as Matriculation *minus* English *plus* a craft. The recommendation was accepted by Government but before it could be implemented the Popular Ministry resigned.

The problem was, therefore, taken up in 1946 when the Ministry returned to office. Four *Lokashalas* were started in June of that year—one teaching through each of the regional languages—at Dhulia (Marathi), Nadiad (Gujarati), Bijapur (Kannada) and Poona (Urdu). All these were residential institutions and the students were paid stipends of Rs. 12 per month (subsequently raised to Rs. 15). In 1947, two more *Lokashalas* were opened at Ahmednagar and Manmad.

Unfortunately, the *Lokashalas* did not become popular. The main reasons were two: (1) the absence of English from their course and (2) the institution of the S. S. C. Examination, the scheme of which was so framed that a student could take the Examination without English. It was, therefore, possible for the students of the ordinary high schools to pass an examination of the same status as that of the *Lokashala* Examination without attending any special school like the *Lokashalas*. Moreover, Government decided in 1949 that future candidates admitted to the *Lokashalas* would not be paid stipends. This was the last straw that sealed the fate of these institutions and the number of their students dwindled so quickly that Government decided to close them. They were accordingly closed, class by class, between 1951 and 1953.

Prior to 1949, students who appeared at the S. L. C. Examination and passed in the necessary number of subjects but failed in English were given *Lokashala* Certificates. But a separate *Lokashala* Examination was organised in 1949 and held till 1953-54 in the ordinary way and for repeaters only in 1954-55. The number of students who appeared for this examination varied from 259 in 1952-53 to 59 in 1954-55.

As all the *Lokashalas* were closed in 1953 there was no need to continue this examination.

5 (24). *Secondary School Certificate Examination (1949-55)*.—It will be seen from the preceding discussion that the Matriculation had continued to dominate the secondary course from 1859 to 1948 and that all attempts to reduce its domination by creating alternative examinations had failed. Government, therefore, decided to make an entirely different approach to the problem by abolishing the Matriculation altogether and by replacing it with a School Leaving Examination organised on sound educational principles.

The Joint Committee of the Central Advisory Board and the Inter-University Board had recommended that there should be only one examination at the end of the high school stage for pupils of all types of secondary schools—academic, technical, commercial, etc.—and that it should be of such a character as to suit the pupils who would enter employment on leaving school as well as those who intended to proceed to a university. Government accepted this recommendation and passed the Secondary School Certificate Examination Act in 1948. Under its provision, a S. S. C. E. Board was constituted for the specific purpose of holding the Examination. It consists of a Chairman, six ex-officio members who are officers of Government, twelve representatives of the universities in the State elected by them in the prescribed manner, twelve representatives of headmasters and assistant teachers nominated by Government and five experts in Education, also nominated by Government. The Chairman and the Secretary of the Board are whole-time officers of Government. The first Board under the Act was constituted in 1948 and it has since been reconstituted in 1951 and 1955.

The S. S. C. Examination organised under this Act has replaced all the earlier examinations held at the end of the secondary course, viz. the

Matriculation Examination, the S. L. C. Examination, and the Lokashala Examination. It now includes as many as 74 different subjects within its framework and they include academic, agricultural, commercial, technical and art subjects of all types. These are divided into 9 groups. A student desiring to pass the Examination has to choose not less than seven and not more than ten subjects. It will thus be seen that the Examination provides a wide choice of optional subjects in order to cater to the needs of pupils with different aptitudes and interests and tries to fit them effectively for a variety of careers in business, industry, and Government service.

All the universities in the State have accepted the S. S. C. Examination as their entrance examination; but each university has prescribed for admission its own conditions regarding the subjects to be selected as well as the proficiency to be attained in them.

The institution of this examination has led to a number of advantages and it has now been accepted as one of the most important educational reforms introduced by Government during recent years. So long as Bombay was the only university in the State, the holding of the Matriculation Examination by it did not lead to any duplication of effort. But when as many as six universities were established, the contingency of each university holding its own Matriculation arose and it was feared that such multiplicity of examinations might result in a lowering of standards. The S. S. C. Examination has removed all such fears by instituting a common and a uniform standard for all the regions of the State. Secondly, it has brought the various interests concerned with the examination in much closer collaboration than at any other time in the past and university professors, secondary teachers, inspecting officers and educational experts, now work hand in hand to make it a success. Thirdly, the organisation of the Examination has made it possible to reduce the domination of the university courses to a much greater extent than in the past. This evil is of such long standing and so difficult to counteract that it would be idle to expect very quick results. But the experience of the last seven years shows that this examination has been better able to divert students to practical courses than any other examination held before.

Three other achievements of the S. S. C. E. Board may be mentioned here. In order to provide for the convenience of students, the Board has increased the number of centres from 29 in 1949 to 69 in 1955. Besides, it has decided to print the question-papers in the regional languages also thus reducing the emphasis on English still further.* Thirdly, it has introduced a very good system for the appointment of examiners, moderators, etc. While it may be said to err a little on the mechanical side, the system has effectively put an end to the complaints about one type of examiner being preferred to another and provides reasonable opportunity for college professors, school teachers, and others similarly qualified to be directly associated with the work of the Examination.

* Although the option to answer question-papers in regional languages was given in 1925, the question-papers were printed in English only till 1954.

The following table shows the number of students who appeared at, and passed the S. S. C. Examination since 1949:—

TABLE No. 5 (22)
S. S. C. Examination Results (1949-55)

Year.		Number appeared.	Number passed.	Percentage of passed.	No. of Girls included in.	
					Column 2.	Column 3.
1		2	3	4	5	6
1948-49	...	50,386	23,399	46.4	8,082	4,289
1949-50	...	57,659	22,491	38.9	9,426	4,137
1950-51	...	67,603	27,026	40.0	11,159	4,962
1951-52.						
October	...	35,405	8,881	26.1	4,569	1,418
March	...	56,986	24,002	42.0	9,167	4,421
1952-53.						
October	...	25,343	7,237	28.5	3,311	1,030
March	...	74,974	29,435	39.2	12,101	5,513
1953-54.						
October	...	30,749	9,153	29.8	4,306	1,387
March	...	81,934	33,451	40.8	13,814	6,676
1954-55.						
October	...	39,709	15,057	37.9	5,895	2,480
March	...	84,952	40,130	47.2	15,250	8,301

5 (25). *Curriculum and Teaching Methods.*—The foregoing discussion will show how secondary schools have suffered in the past from two major evils—the use of English as a medium of instruction and the strangle-hold of the Matriculation. The third major evil of the system was the narrowness of the curriculum (which was restricted mostly to the academic and literary subjects) and the consequent absence of diversified courses which could fit the students into different practical walks of life.

This evil arose from a number of causes. The Government high schools in this State were planned in the tradition of the public schools of England and consequently, they were expected to develop a classical and literary tradition. This lead was naturally taken up by the private schools also so that the classical and literary tradition dominated the ideology of all secondary schools. Secondly, the upper and middle classes of society who alone availed themselves of these institutions for several years were accustomed to a bookish education and the black-coated professions for centuries past. Hence they neither demanded nor relished the introduction of practical work in schools. Thirdly, the lack of finances and the dominance of private enterprise also helped the tendency because

the private agencies found it much cheaper and easier to organise the academic rather than the vocational schools. Fourthly, the trades, arts and industries of the country were not only not developed but were even allowed to languish or die. Hence even if courses leading to them would have been introduced in schools, they would not have been popular because there was little chance that students trained in them would find sufficient employment or adequate remuneration. Fifthly, the long domination of the Matriculation which was an entrance test to the University and hence necessarily academic in character also restricted the curriculum of the average school to the literary studies and no attempt was made either to teach or to study the other practical subjects which were later on introduced in the course but which had no "examination value". Lastly, the need to provide vocational education was not felt keenly because the secondary schools concentrated on the teaching of English and, for more than a hundred years, the facility to write and speak in English was the one passport for a job under Government. The cynical observations that "a knowledge of English was vocational education in India under the British rule" is unfortunately too true to be denied.

The development of the curriculum of secondary schools, therefore, is a narrow path that leads along a few academic subjects to the portals of the Matriculation. In fact, the Department had often little choice in the matter because the freedom in evolving a curriculum for secondary schools was strictly limited. At one end, the limited attainments of primary Standard IV placed one restriction and at the other, the requirements of the Matriculation placed another. Very often, all that the Department was expected to do was to provide a graduated ladder, spread over six or seven standards, which would lead from primary Standard IV to the Matriculation. It is true that the Department could add some subjects which were not required for Matriculation, although it dared not omit any which the Examination prescribed. But neither the schools nor the pupils were ever keenly interested in studying such "extras"; and it was the Matriculation syllabus that ultimately set the tune to all the secondary schools.

In its long history of about 90 years from 1859 to 1947, the Matriculation syllabus was revised on several occasions. Without going into the details of these periodical changes, certain broad conclusions regarding the general nature of the Matriculation syllabus may be stated here. English was always a very important subject at the Examination. Similarly Mathematics, which included different combinations of arithmetic, algebra geometry and trigonometry was also a compulsory subject. A classical language was compulsory in the early years; but later on, modern European languages were introduced as optionals to a classical language. The modern Indian languages were removed from the Matriculation course early in its history; and although they were re-introduced as an optional subject for the classical languages some years later, the candidates rarely availed themselves of this concession because the study of a classical language was still compulsory in the first two years of the college. Later on, modern Indian languages were declared to be "school subjects", i. e. the subject did not form a part of the Matriculation course, but the

headmaster of the school concerned had to certify the proficiency of the student in this subject before sending him up for the Examination. But as even this reform failed to interest the students in the study of modern Indian language, they were included within the curriculum of the Matriculation and made examination subjects. History of England and India formed an important subject of study in the earlier years, but later on, the emphasis was shifted to the study of the history of India. Geography formed a part of the curriculum in the early years. Later on, it was omitted altogether; then it was made a school subject; and finally it became compulsory examination subject. Physics and Chemistry came much later into the picture and were but indifferently taught in the nineteenth century. During the present century, however, the Department made a strenuous effort to improve the teaching of science and with them, the position of physics and chemistry in the Matriculation syllabus was also improved. It first became a school subject and later on found a place as compulsory subjects for the Examination. Physiology and Hygiene or Biology were also introduced gradually as optional subjects to the general course in the physics and chemistry. Broadly speaking, therefore, it may be said that the Matriculation syllabus included English, mathematics, a classical language—(or a modern European language), a modern Indian language, history, geography and science (which included physics, and chemistry and physiology, hygiene or biology). Although some other subjects did find a place in the curricula of later years, these seven subjects may be said to have formed the core of the Matriculation syllabus throughout its history of about 90 years.

The academic character and the rigidity of this curriculum led to the attempt to introduce alternative practical and vocational or prevocational courses in the secondary schools curriculum. As early as in 1879, Sir Richard Temple, the then Governor of Bombay, introduced drawing as an optional subject in the curriculum of secondary schools. A little later he was also responsible for the introduction of the teaching of agriculture in secondary schools—an experiment whose details will be described later in Chapter VIII, Section IV. The Indian Education Commission of 1882 also emphasised the need of organising a "modern side" in secondary schools. But the only effect of its recommendations was to institute the School Final Examination which has been described earlier in Section 5 (21). As stated there, this examination was never very successful and it did not lessen the domination of the Matriculation in any way. Even after 1882, therefore, very little was done to develop the teaching of alternative practical courses in the secondary schools. The agricultural classes started under the lead given by Sir Richard never became popular and disappeared from the scene by 1904-05. The drawing classes survived and even prospered; but taken by themselves, they could not be taken to constitute a "modern side" of the secondary schools. An attempt was, therefore, made to introduce sloyd (1912). An expert from Mysore was obtained and a few teachers were trained in wood and paper sloyd.* But the financial stringency created by the First World War prevented an

* For details, see Report of the Director of Public Instruction, Bombay, 1912-17, pp. 46-47.

expansion of the scheme. Sloyd was introduced only in a few Government schools and continued to be taught for a few years. But the experiment diminished in popularity; all the old history of the agricultural classes repeated itself; and sloyd disappeared from the secondary schools by about 1926-27. The private schools could do very little in this field because they did not have the requisite financial resources. But a few of them undertook some experiments which, however, were neither extensive nor significant.* Even as late as 1936-37, therefore, very little had been done to develop a modern side and to diversify the secondary course. "The demand, for education of a pre-vocational or vocational nature", wrote the Director of Education in 1936-37 "is growing more vocal, but there is very little sign of its being translated into action. A few schools have introduced a number of vocational subjects into the secondary school course such as agriculture, weaving, tailoring and carpentry. But these schools, as has been mentioned above, are exceptions. A few others have introduced manual work as a form of hand and eye training. The fact remains, however, that till the average parent is prepared to give up his fanatical worship of the Matriculation examination and is prepared to look upon education as a means of preparing his child for life, and, if necessary, live as a manual worker or an artisan and not regard education merely as a means of preparing his child for Government service, it will be difficult to establish either vocational or pre-vocational schools."†

The credit of having made the first bold attempt effectively to organise a modern side to secondary schools goes, therefore, to the Popular Ministry. Reference has already been made to the attempts made by Government, during the last eighteen years, to reduce the domination of the Matriculation and to create a comprehensive school final examination like the S. S. C. Examination instead. These have been accompanied by intensive efforts to develop a system of vocational high schools. For this purpose, alternative courses in agriculture, commerce, engineering and domestic science were drawn up. Some of the Government high schools which merely taught the academic courses common to all schools were now reorganised for the teaching of these courses and converted into vocational high schools. Liberal financial assistance was also given to such institutions as desired to introduce a modern side. It is obvious that, for financial and other reasons, progress in an activity of this type cannot be very rapid. But by 1954-55, as many as 29 vocational high schools were functioning in the State. Of these, 12 were conducted by Government and 17 by private enterprise. Of these, 8 were technical high schools, 12 were commercial high schools and 9 were agricultural high schools. Besides, one Government high school taught the domestic science course and several private schools made provision for the teaching of various practical subjects although they were not classified as full-fledged vocational high schools.

The details of the vocational high schools as they stood on 31st March, 1955 are given in the following table:—

* Report of the Director of Public Instruction, Bombay 1912-17, pp. 46-47.

† Ibid, 1936-37, p. 78.

TABLE No. 5 (25)
Vocational High Schools (31-3-1955)

Type.	Management.	No. of Schools.	No. of Pupils.	Direct expenditure met from			Total Expendi- ture.	
				Government Funds.	Fees.	Other sources.		
				Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	
Technical	Government	...	4	1,477	2,24,853	94,097	6,808	3,25,758
	Non-Govt.	...	4	1,216	1,20,970	1,31,829	1,00,398	3,53,197
	Total	...	8	2,693	3,45,823	2,25,926	1,07,206	6,78,955
Commercial	Government	...	3	788	89,768	35,997	5,724	1,31,489
	Non-Govt.	...	9	1,036	56,791	75,543	14,724	1,47,058
	Total	...	12	1,824	1,46,559	1,11,540	20,448	2,78,547
Agricultural	Government	...	5	1,168	1,87,515	56,099	17,531	2,61,145
	Non-Govt.	...	4	625	37,128	31,977	31,217	1,00,322
	Total	...	9	1,793	2,24,643	88,076	48,748	3,61,467
Total Vocational High Schools.	Government	...	12	3,433	5,02,136	1,86,193	30,063	7,18,392
	Non-Govt.	...	17	2,877	2,14,889	2,39,349	1,46,339	6,00,577
	Total	...	29	6,310	7,17,025	4,25,542	1,76,402	13,18,969

The organisation of these vocational high schools, whose working will be described in detail in the appropriate context in Chapter VIII, may be said to be the first earnest attempt made in this State to diversify the secondary school curriculum and to provide courses suited to the capacities and aptitudes of the different types of pupils that enter the secondary schools. Welcome as this reform is, it is obvious that the scale on which it is being worked out at present is too limited to produce tangible results and that a very large expansion of multi-purpose high schools teaching two or more diversified courses is necessary before Secondary Education may be said to have been properly reoriented.

The curriculum of the average secondary school has, therefore, shown but little change during the last century. In perfect contrast with this, however, the teaching methods and the general atmosphere of secondary schools have undergone a revolutionary change during the same period. This has been due to several causes. Probably the most important of these is discontinuance of English as a medium of instruction. Unintelligent cramming and a great waste of the energy of the teacher and pupil alike were unavoidable when English was the medium of instruction and with the adoption of the mother-tongue as the medium of instruction and examination, teaching has naturally become more vital and enjoyable. The second cause of the change is the beneficial influence of the improvement in the general education of the average teacher and especially, of his professional training. In the nineteenth century the sole emphasis was on the imparting of information and on a memorising which was often too mechanical. The secondary training colleges have changed this picture almost entirely. There is now a better respect for the personality of the child and a large adoption of teaching methods which are educationally sound. Thirdly, the extra-curricular activities are an entirely new development of the recent years and they have been responsible for helping to build the personality of the children and for widening the very concept of Secondary Education. Lastly, the introduction of crafts and the recent emphasis on Physical Education have also enriched the life of a secondary school. It is true that so much is still left to be desired. But one has only to compare a good secondary school of 1855 where a small batch of students was trying to cram "Western science and literature" through a difficult and foreign medium to a good modern secondary school with its building and equipment, trained and well-educated teachers, modern methods of teaching and a large programme of co-curricular activities to realise the significant achievements of the last hundred years in this field of educational activity.

5.(26). *Types of Secondary Schools*.—Secondary schools are usually classified into different types on two basis. The first is the basis of environment and location and this leads to the division of all secondary schools into two groups—urban and rural. The second basis is that of the objective or curriculum and this leads to a division into four types, viz. (1) European and Anglo-Indian Schools; (2) English-teaching Schools; (3) Ordinary or Academic Secondary Schools; and (4) Vocational High Schools. Of these, the urban or academic secondary schools do not need any special treatment because they form the bulk of the secondary

schools in the State and all that has been generally said about Secondary Education in this Chapter may be taken as applying to them. Some mention of the vocational high schools has already been made in the preceding Section and their detailed account will follow in Chapter VIII. The remaining three types of secondary schools—(Anglo-Indian, English-teaching and rural) which have some peculiar problems of their own will, therefore, be briefly dealt with in this Section.

(a) *The European and Anglo-Indian Schools* as their name implies, were meant mainly for the children of pure or mixed European descent. They were allowed to admit non-European children also; but with the object of preserving their peculiar atmosphere, such admissions were restricted to a small percentage of their total strength (generally from 20 to 30). They had their own course of studies and a special system of grant-in-aid. These schools, therefore, formed a small but an exclusive and privileged group of secondary schools.*

(b) *The English-teaching Schools* resembled the Europeans and Anglo-Indian schools in several respects. Both the types of schools used English as the only medium of instruction, followed the same course of studies and prepared their students for Cambridge Senior Examination rather than for the Matriculation. Both the types of schools were attended by European, Anglo-Indian and Indian children until 1921-22, both were also dealt with together in the Departmental Reports. The main distinctions between these schools, therefore, was in respect of the proportion of European and Anglo-Indian children. If this proportion was above a prescribed figure, the school was classified as European and Anglo-Indian; and if it fell below that, it was classified as English-teaching. It, therefore, sometimes happened that a school would be classified as European in one year and as English-teaching in another.

The following extract from a note by Mr. Hesketh, the Inspector of European Schools, will give an idea of the working of these schools:—

"An English-teaching School is defined in the Grant-in-aid Code as one in which the proportion of pupils of European descent is not sufficient to constitute a European School and which follows a prescribed curriculum. Schools for Goans and East Indians are recognised as English-teaching. The special feature of these schools is that instruction is through the medium of English throughout. They are peculiar to this Presidency. At present over 90 per cent of English-teaching Schools are schools for Goans and East Indians. The latter are Roman Catholic Indian Christians, usually bearing Portuguese names, living in the Island of Salsette. As a rule Europeans attend such schools when there is no European School in the vicinity. About 60 per cent of the total number of pupils attending English-teaching Schools are Goans or East Indians, and, as 7 per cent are Europeans, we may conclude that 33 per cent are non-Christian Indians, the majority of whom speak a recognised vernacular and would otherwise attend an Anglo-Vernacular School. In order that such pupils should not be ignorant of their own vernacular, it is a rule that no pupil may ordinarily be admitted to an English-teaching School unless he has passed

* Their detailed history will be given in Chapter XIV.

the Fourth Vernacular standard. In the case of a few schools, this rule has not been strictly enforced, as it is claimed that the parents attach more importance to English than to the vernacular, and speak it freely at home. The Department, has, however, insisted that the vernacular should be taught in such schools up to the Fourth Vernacular standard. It may be noted that the English-teaching Schools comprise both the primary and secondary stages. The Goans and East Indians in the lower classes are really studying in the primary stage, but on the other hand the non-Christians in these classes have completed the primary stage in the vernacular, and are in the secondary stage. It is, therefore, somewhat difficult to classify these Schools, but as a school in which English is taught is treated as a Secondary School in this Presidency, it is simpler to treat English-teaching schools as Secondary for statistical purposes. Local Authorities are now responsible for primary education and approved primary schools are no longer aided directly by Government, but as it is difficult for one part of the same school to be aided by a Local Authority and another part by Government, and as some of the pupils in the primary stage are really in the secondary stage as pointed out above, Government continues to aid these schools directly.”*

The English-teaching schools were dealt with under the ordinary Grant-in-Aid Code applicable to all secondary schools and yet they had a privileged position in two ways; firstly, they were older and well established institutions and hence received larger grants; and secondly, as pointed out by Mr. Hesketh, even their primary departments were treated as secondary and received a more liberal grant-in-aid. Besides, the finances of these schools were generally satisfactory because they usually charged high rates of fees. They could, therefore, afford to maintain a well-paid competent staff and as their students also came from cultured and well-to-do homes, it was no surprise that they could consistently maintain a high standard of efficiency.

From the administrative point of view, these schools presented two problems. The first of these has been stated already and referred to the exact status of their primary departments and the second referred to the enrolment, in these schools, of a large number of Indian children whose mother-tongue was not English and who could, with advantage, have attended some other school. These problems arose as early as in 1926-27; but no firm action was taken on them till 1937. The Popular Ministry grappled with the problem for the first time and directed that the English teaching schools should be treated on par with the secondary schools teaching through any other language (1940-41). Hence their primary departments were separated from the secondary and began to be aided under the Primary Education Act.

Regarding the second problem, Government recently made an attempt to prevent, as far as possible, the admission, to these schools, of children whose mother-tongue is not English. Although this attempt was based on the sound educational principle that a child should be taught through his

* Report of the Director of Public Instruction, 1922-27, pp. 59-61.

own mother-tongue, it met with a good deal of opposition from certain quarters where the tradition of attachment to English was still strong.

✓ The statistics of English-teaching schools are separately available between 1886-87 and 1936-37 only. These are given in the following table:—

TABLE No. 5 (26)

English-teaching Schools, (1886-87 to 1936-37)

Year.		No. of Schools.	No. of Pupils.	Total Expenditure.	Government grant.
				Rs.	Rs.
1886-87	...	26	4,245	97,063	40,127
1896-97	...	40	2,911	1,82,870	43,435
1906-07	...	40	6,597	2,59,275	52,742
1921-22	...	45	9,961	6,89,321	1,73,728
1936-37	...	41	15,410	10,49,126	1,80,214

(c) *Rural Secondary Schools.*—The modern secondary school began as an urban institution and continues to be essentially so even to this date. It was in the cities and towns that the people first came in contact with the European officers of Government, and therefore, it was but natural that the desire for English education should first begin in the metropolitan Cities of Bombay and Poona and then spread to the district headquarters. In the first stage of the development of Secondary Education in the State, therefore, all the high schools and most of the Anglo-Vernacular schools were located in the bigger towns and cities only. This stage lasted till about 1881-82.

The awakening among the public then began to spread to the smaller towns and secondary schools began to be established in ever increasing numbers at the taluka head-quarters and in other important towns (excluding the district headquarters). This stage lasted about 40 years. By 1921-22, therefore, there were a very large number of high schools in all cities, district head-quarters and major towns in the State. Besides, high schools had been established in most head-quarters of talukas and even though a high school was not established in all talukas or in backward areas, several talukas had more than one high school and almost every taluka had at least a middle school.

After 1921, the secondary schools began to penetrate the rural areas. Middle schools gradually came to be established in the bigger villages and by 1946-47 several of them developed into full-fledged high schools. When newer middle schools were established in other villages. After the attainment of Independence, there was an unprecedented awakening in the rural areas and consequently, the development of Secondary Education was even greater than in the past. The following table shows the statistics of secondary schools in rural areas as on 31st March, 1955:—

TABLE No. 5 (27)

Rural Secondary Schools (31-3-1955)

		No. of Institutions.	No. of Pupils.
High Schools for Boys	...	185	34,484
High Schools for Girls
	Total ...	185	34,484
Middle Schools for Boys	...	195	11,515
Middle Schools for Girls	...	1	23
	Total ...	196	11,538
Grand Total	...	381	46,022

It will be seen from the above that although the rural areas have 80 per cent. of the total population in the State, they have only 185 high schools with 34,484 pupils out of a total of 1,165 high schools with 4,45,109 pupils in the State. The middle schools are necessarily more numerous in rural areas and out of the 356 middle schools with 30,093 pupils in the State as a whole as many as 196 with 11,538 pupils are in villages. In all the villages of the State there is not a single high school for girls and there is only one small middle school with an enrolment of 23 pupils. This shows how the Secondary Education in rural areas is still largely undeveloped.

5 (27). *Teachers in Secondary Schools.*—The study of the curriculum naturally leads to the allied problem of teachers and teaching methods.

(a) *Standards of Staffing.*—The general standards prescribed for the staffing of secondary schools have varied from time to time. Broadly speaking it may be said that changes have been made with three principal objectives: Indianisation, larger recruitment of persons with good general education, and greater emphasis on training.

In the early years, it was but natural that Englishmen alone were appointed in secondary schools as Indians competent to teach the language were not available. But the Elphinstone Institution, Bombay, and the Poona College soon began to supply a number of Indians competent to conduct secondary schools. Hence the tradition of appointing Englishmen as headmasters of high schools became restricted to a few Government and missionary institutions. It has now disappeared entirely from Government secondary schools and continues only to a limited extent in mission schools.

The establishment of the Bombay University in 1857 and the holding of the first Matriculation Examination in 1859 marks an important step in the better staffing of secondary schools because they made it possible to obtain the services of teachers who had received good general education. In the early days, however, the output of graduates and matriculates was so limited and the opportunities of employment open to them were so large that few secondary schools had an adequate supply of highly educated teachers. Even till 1901-02, therefore, the Departmental expectation was that the headmaster of a secondary school (or at least of a high school) should be graduate, that all teachers of English should at least be matriculates, and that non-matriculates should not be required to teach the higher standards. With the turn of the century, the supply of matriculates and graduates began to increase greatly and some provision for training was made by organising the S. T. C. Examination and establishing the Secondary Training College, Bombay. Consequently, more rigorous standards began to be adopted, and by 1936-37, the usual expectation was that the headmaster at least must be a trained graduate, that the teachers of higher standards should, as far as possible, be graduates, that special subjects like physics and chemistry should be taught by science graduates, and that, except for special reasons, no non-matriculated persons should be appointed on the staff of the secondary schools. At present, the standards have risen even higher because the facilities for higher general education as well as for professional training have increased very greatly in recent years. Except in rural or backward areas, it is now expected that the headmaster should be trained graduate with five years' experience, that at least half the members of the staff should be graduates and that a large percentage of them should be trained. Non-matriculates are now seldom appointed on the staff of secondary schools except in the case of special teachers. The analysis of the qualifications of the teachers of secondary schools in 1954-55 which is given in the following table will show the great advance that has been made since 1855:—

TABLE No. 5 (28)
Qualifications of Secondary Teachers (31-3-1955)

	No. of Teachers.	Percentage to Total.
1. Graduates—trained	7,468	34.9
2. Graduates—certificated	642	3.0
3. Graduates—uncertificated	2,969	13.9
4. Matriculates or Under-Graduates—trained	5,144	24.0
5. Matriculates or Under-Graduates—certificated	939	4.4
6. Matriculates or Under-Graduates—uncertificated.	2,112	9.9
7. Non-Matriculates—trained	1,027	4.8
8. Non-Matriculates—certificated	577	2.7
9. Non-Matriculates—uncertificated	513	2.4
Total	21,391	100.0

N. B.—The statistics are for recognised schools only.

(b) *The training of secondary teachers* has been dealt with in Chapter VII. It will be seen therefrom that there was no arrangement for the formal training of secondary teachers in this State till 1899, when the S. T. C. Examination was started, and that the Secondary Training College, Bombay, was the only institution for the training of secondary teachers till 1934. This resulted in keeping the percentage of trained teachers very low. But since then, facilities for the training of secondary teachers have been greatly increased and the percentage of trained teachers has consequently risen.

Statistics of teachers in secondary schools appear in the Annual Reports since 1911-12. These have been consolidated in the following table:

TABLE No. 5 (29)
Teachers in Secondary Schools (1911-55)

Year.	Total No. of Teachers.	No. of Trained Teachers.	Percentage of Trained Teachers.
1911-12	2,944	555	18.9
1921-22	4,447	1,179	26.5
1936-37	7,076	1,972	27.9
1946-47	13,240	6,339	47.9
1951-52	18,753	10,340	55.1
1953-54	20,401	12,204	59.8
1954-55	21,391	13,639	63.8

(c) *Emoluments and Service Conditions.*—As the bulk of the secondary schools are conducted by private enterprise, the problem of giving an adequate remuneration to secondary teachers has become a difficult and complicated issue. Historically, it has passed through three stages.

The first stage lasted from 1881-82 when Indian private enterprise in Secondary Education had just passed its infancy to about 1911-12. During this period, it was an act of patriotism to work in a secondary school. The tradition of self-sacrifice created by the Deccan Education Society was still strong and although the teachers received a low remuneration, it was something of which they were proud and for which the public held them in veneration. Moreover, the cost of living was low and hence even the meagre salaries which prevailed in this period were not so irksome as they might appear at first sight. In spite of the low salaries, therefore, there was hardly any dissatisfaction among secondary teachers and the standard of education was not adversely affected.

With the First World War, things began to change a good deal. The cost of living went up very greatly and consequently, even those teachers who had embraced the profession in a spirit of service and sacrifice now began to find it hard to maintain their idealism in the face of the severe difficulties created by low salaries. Besides, the very expansion of Secondary Education had necessitated the recruitment of a large number of teachers who had not been inspired by any ideology and who had taken up the profession of teaching as a source of livelihood. Such persons could not naturally be expected to accept their low emoluments with equanimity. The public also had now changed its attitude and the veneration which the teachers of an earlier period received from their fellow-citizens began to disappear to a great extent and even this compensation to poverty was mostly lost. Consequently, a discontent against the prevailing low remuneration was born and spread rapidly. The matter began to be considered by teachers' organisations and an increasing agitation was organised on the subject. But for one reason or the other, it was not possible for Government to take any effective action in the matter.

With the advent of the Popular Ministry, the problem entered the third stage of some effective action at the Government level. By 1936-37, the demands of the teachers had crystallised under three heads, viz., (i) payment of an adequate basic remuneration; (ii) suitable provision of old age; and (iii) security of tenure. In the meanwhile, the Second World War worsened the economic conditions of secondary teachers and seriously added to the discontent. The problem thus became very urgent and Government has, therefore, taken the following measures to improve the economic condition of the secondary teachers and to meet their legitimate demands:—

(i) As stated earlier in Section (15), uniform scale of pay, viz. Rs. 80-5-130-E.B.-6-160-8-200 has been adopted for all trained graduates and a scale of Rs. 56-2-80-E.B.-4-120 has also been sanctioned for all trained matriculates. These scales, it must be noted, are common to Government as well as private schools. Besides, all secondary teachers now get dearness allowance at rates sanctioned for Government servants and schools are

given a grant-in-aid at 50 per cent. of the expenditure incurred on this account. These orders have brought about a significant improvement in the emoluments of secondary teachers.

(ii) A scheme of provident fund has also been instituted and a special grant-in-aid is given for the purpose.

(iii) Several orders have been issued to give reasonable conditions of service and security of tenure. Schools are now compelled to define the service conditions of teachers on proper lines and to make due provision for leave and other privileges. They are also advised not to change their staff without due reason and the permanency of teachers is specially taken into consideration at the time of inspection. No disciplinary action can now be taken against a teacher unless the prescribed procedure is followed and he is given a reasonable opportunity to defend himself. If, however, a teacher feels aggrieved by any disciplinary action taken by the management, he has a right of appeal to the Department; and in the case of wrongful termination of service, he is also entitled to compensation at prescribed rates. These reforms have materially succeeded in stabilizing the position of secondary teachers to a great extent.

5 (28). *Financial Assistance to Poor Students*.—The review of the rise in fee-rates in the secondary schools given earlier in Section 5 (14) will show that the cost of Secondary Education has increased very greatly during the last hundred years. Prior to 1840, all secondary schools were free, and though fees began to be levied from 1841 and were continually increased from time to time, the fee paid per pupil per annum was only Rs. 12 in 1881-82. But it increased to Rs. 18.1 in 1901-02, to Rs. 29.6 in 1921-22, to Rs. 37.1 in 1936-37, to Rs. 50.9 in 1946-47, and to Rs. 64.4 in 1954-55. This continuous increase in the cost of Secondary Education has made it increasingly difficult for the poor student to receive higher education. An important problem of Secondary Education, therefore, is to devise a suitable system of free-studentships and scholarships to help deserving students. The attempts made by Government in this direction during the last hundred years are noticed below.*

(a) *Free-studentships*.—Free-studentships appear to have been liberally given prior to 1855. Howard, who was responsible for the improvement of the administration of Government secondary schools, regularised the grant of this concession and fixed an upper limit to the free-studentships which could be given in them. This limit was changed from time to time and it appears to have been fixed at 20 per cent. by about 1875. Then a period of financial stringency set in and the number of free-studentships in Government high schools was reduced to 5 per cent. But unfortunately, no restriction was placed at this time on the extent to which free-studentships could be granted in a private school. Consequently, private schools gave free-studentships to a very large percentage of their pupils

* Private charities have done a great service to the cause of higher education by providing scholarships to poor and deserving students. But an account of their activities is beyond the scope of this Review.

and more than compensated for the reduction in the free-studentships given in Government schools. As the Government schools formed only a very small portion of the total number of secondary schools in the State, the restriction of free-studentships in Government secondary schools did not adversely affect the interests of the poor students so long as the private schools had full freedom to give free-studentships to any extent they deemed fit.

In the reorganisation of Secondary Education started by Curzon in the early years of the present century, the freedom of the managers of private secondary schools to award an unlimited number of free-studentships was restricted with the object of improving their financial condition. It was now laid down that the percentage of free-studentships given in a private secondary school shall not exceed 15 per cent. of the total enrolment. As the economic conditions began to get worse, the private schools were also unable to show any liberal concessions in this respect, and very soon the number of free-studentships in private schools was also greatly restricted. Secondary Education began, therefore, to pass beyond the financial reach of the lower middle classes, especially after the rise in the cost of living created by the two World Wars.

The problem was, therefore, taken up by the Indian Ministers under the Dyarchy who introduced a number of free-studentships for the intermediate and backward classes, either by redistributing existing concessions or by sanctioning additional grants for the purpose. The Popular Ministry which came into office in 1937 carried this idea a good deal further. In accordance with its general policy, all concessions in fees based on communal grounds were eliminated. The total number of free-studentships available was, however, increased to a very great extent and they were awarded on the basis of merit and poverty but irrespective of castes or creed (except in the case of backward class pupils). According to the rules in force at present, Government gives fee-grants on account of all eligible backward class pupils admitted to private secondary schools (they are given free-studentships in all Government schools). Similarly, free-studentships or fee-grants are also given very liberally in the case of children of displaced persons. A rule has also been laid down that children of teachers serving in private secondary schools shall be admitted free in the school concerned and Government gives free-studentships or fee-grants on account of the children of women primary teachers under certain conditions. Moreover all secondary schools (except those which charge fees at $1\frac{1}{2}$ times the maximum rate prescribed) are permitted to give free-studentships to 3 per cent. of their total enrolment (in addition to those to whom they gave free-studentships on their own) and if they do so, Government reimburses them by payment of fee-grants in full. It would be idle to pretend that the above measures are adequate to meet the situation. But they clearly show that Government is alive to the situation and is doing its best to see that no deserving boy is deprived of Secondary Education on account of poverty.

(b) *Scholarships*.—The Despatch of 1854 directed that a system of scholarships should be instituted in order to enable a poor but deserving

pupil of one school to join another of a higher class. Accordingly, a system of high and middle school scholarships came to be devised. These were awarded on the results of open competitive examinations—the middle school scholarship examination being equivalent to primary Standard IV and the high school scholarship examination to primary Standard VII. The value of the scholarships was small, but they were tenable for three and four years respectively.

The scheme began in 1861 when Howard instituted 142 scholarships of Rs. 3 per month. Both the number and value of these scholarships have changed from time to time. It is not necessary to enter into all these details in this brief Review and it would be enough to state that the total expenditure incurred on scholarships in secondary schools was very small in the nineteenth century and did not generally exceed about 10 to 15 thousand rupees. But these were greatly increased during the present century and especially after 1921. The Popular Ministry made still further additions and the following table shows the large number of scholarships that were available in secondary schools in 1954-55:—

TABLE No. 5 (30)
Scholarships in Secondary Schools (31-3-1955)

S. No	Type of Scholarship.	Tenable in	No. of sets of Scholarships.	No. of Scholarships.	Rates of Scholarship p. m.						
					V.	VI.	VII.	VIII.	IX.	X.	XI.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
1	Government open Scholarships	Middle School	564	1,692	4	4	4
2	Government Special Scholarships for the Backward Class.	High School	537	2,148	5 0	6 0	8 0	8 0
3	Government Special Scholarships for Bihls, West Khandesh District.	Secondary Schools.	246	1,722	6	6	6	7 8	9 0	12 0	12 0
4	Government Special Scholarships for the Backward Classes.	Secondary Schools.	10	70	6	6	6	7 8	9 0	12 0	12 0
5	Scholarships to High School Girls, intending to take up nursing as their career.	Vocational High Schools.	42	168	10 8	10 8	10 8	10 8
6	Government Special Scholarships for children from Cultivators Classes.	High Schools	...	100	10 0	12 0	15 0
7	Junior Scholarships	Anglo-Indian Schools.	10	160	5 0	5 0	5 0	5 0
8	Senior Scholarships	Anglo-Indian Schools.	5	20	30

5 (29). *Conclusion.*—The foregoing review of the development of Secondary Education in the State throws light on several interesting features. It shows how the modern secondary school first began as a school for the teaching of English as a language, how it later on developed in the classical or academic tradition on the pattern of the public or grammar schools of England, and how it finally came to be recognised as an institution for the proper education of adolescent boys and girls. It also shows how the secondary schools of to-day were self-contained and parallel institutions till about 1865, and how they gradually came to occupy a middle place between the primary schools on the one hand and the colleges on the other. It also shows how the initiative in the matter of organising Secondary Education was first taken by Government and how, before long, the whole field was almost completely monopolised by private enterprise. It will also be noticed that Secondary Education has always been mainly supported from fees and other sources and that, until recently, assistance from Government funds has played only a minor role in the field of Secondary Education.

The large expansion that has occurred in this field during the last 100 years is obvious. In 1818, when the first English schools were organised for Indian children, there were only three such schools in Bombay City and they enrolled less than 100 students in total. In 1954-55, the total number of secondary schools increased to 1,521 with an enrolment of 4,75,302 pupils (4,45,109 boys and 30,093 girls). The system now provides employment for about 21,391 teachers and the total direct expenditure incurred on it is Rs. 5,92,16,311 or 25.6 per cent. of the total direct expenditure on Education. Partly through this expansion and partly through the adoption of an enriched curriculum and improved teaching methods the modern secondary school has made a very material contribution to the cultural development of Indian society as a whole.

Significant as this contribution is, the foregoing review also throws light on the major weaknesses of the system, *viz.*, the domination of English, the use of English as a medium of instruction for nearly a hundred years, the dominance of examinations, and the failure to provide diversified courses to suit the varied capacities and aptitudes of adolescent children. It is on account of these blemishes that Secondary Education has often been described as the weakest link in the modern system of education.

It is, however, very fortunate that the importance of Secondary Education is being increasingly realised at present. In the past, the expression "secondary" was generally interpreted to mean "of secondary significance" and the usual tendency was to accord secondary schools a low priority in schemes of reform. This trend began to diminish when the Popular Ministry came to office and especially after the attainment of Independence, and now Secondary Education is generally regarded as the nation-building education. It is, therefore, natural that the Government of India appointed a Secondary Education Commission—the first of its kind in history—to review the existing system of Secondary Education in

the country. The Report of this Commission makes far reaching recommendations for the development of secondary schools. These have generally been accepted by the Government of India and the State Governments and action to implement them has already been initiated on a fairly large scale in 1954-55. It is to be hoped that very significant reforms will be carried out in this field during the next five or ten years and that Secondary Education would soon come into its own.

CHAPTER VI

UNIVERSITY EDUCATION

The University of Bombay, the second oldest university of India, was the first university to be established in this State. Incorporated in 1857, it continued to be the only university in the State until 1947. During the last seven years, however, five additional universities have come to be established. The principle of regional universities was accepted by the Popular Ministry which came to office in 1946 so that Universities were established at Poona (1948), Ahmedabad (1949) and Dharwar (1949) for the Marathi, Gujarati and Kannada areas respectively. The Shri-mati Nathibai Damodar Thackersey Indian Women's University which had been established as early as 1916 by Dr. D. K. Karve was given statutory recognition in 1949 and the merger of the Baroda State added one more University, the Maharaja Sayajirao University of Baroda, in the same year. By the end of 1949-50, therefore, there were six statutory universities in the State.*

As an introduction to the study of the development of higher education in the State, it is, therefore, necessary to trace briefly the history of all these six universities.

I. Bombay University

6 (2). *The Constitution of the Bombay University (1857).*—The University of Bombay was incorporated by Act No. XXII of 1857 passed by the Imperial Legislature. It nominated the first Chancellor, Vice-Chancellor and Fellows, who together constituted the body corporate of the University. The number of Fellows excluding the Chancellor and Vice-Chancellor was to be not less than twenty-six. Fellows were of two classes: *Ex-officio* Fellows who included the Chief Justice of the Bombay High Court, the Bishop of Bombay, Members of the Executive Council of the Governor of Bombay, the Director of Public Instruction, Bombay, the Educational Inspector of the Presidency Division, and the Principals

* At the end of the period under review, a proposal to establish a teaching and residential university at Vallabh-nagar, Anand, was under the consideration of Government. An Act incorporating the university has since been passed.

of all Government Colleges, and *Ordinary Fellows*, who were appointed by Government for life, vacancies in their ranks being caused only by death, resignation, departure from India without the intention of returning thereto, or by cancellation of appointment by Government.

The Senate of the University consisted of the Chancellor (who was always the Governor of Bombay), the Vice-Chancellor (whose appointment was made by the Governor-in-Council for a period of two years at a time) and the Fellows—both Ex-Officio and Ordinary. The Senate was empowered by the Act—(a) to have the entire management of and superintendence over the affairs, concerns, and property of the University; (b) to make and alter any bye-laws or regulations regarding the administration of the University; all such bye-laws and regulations, however, required the previous approval of the Governor-in-Council;

(c) to hold the examinations, charge fees for the same and to confer degrees;

(d) to appoint or remove all examiners, officers and servants of the University; and

(e) generally to act in such manner as shall appear to it to be necessary to promote the purpose intended by the University.

6 (3). *The Development of the University of Bombay (1857-1904).*—The period of about 47 years between its establishment in 1857 and its reconstitution under the Indian Universities Act of 1904 was one of slow and steady expansion. Throughout this period the only function of the University was to hold examinations and confer degrees. The Act of 1857 had specifically mentioned the degrees which the universities could institute and, therefore, it would not have been possible for the University to institute any other degree without an amendment of the Act. But this restriction was removed by the Act of 1860 which empowered the University to institute any degrees or diplomas which it deemed fit and the Act of 1884 authorised it to confer Honorary Degrees also. The first Matriculation Examination was held in 1859 and hence the first Degree Examinations (Bachelor of Arts or B.A., and Licentiate of Medicine or L.M.*) were held in 1862.† The first examination for the Degree of the Master of Arts or M.A. was held in 1865 and the first examination for the Bachelor of Laws or LL.B. was held in 1866. The examination for the Licentiate of Civil Engineering or L.C.E.‡ was held in 1869, for the Doctor of Medicine or M.D. in 1876, and that for the Bachelor of Science or B.Sc. in 1882. It may incidentally be stated that this was the first science degree to be instituted by any university in the whole of India. The degree of the Master of Civil Engineering or M.C.E.§ was instituted in 1890 and a Diploma in Agriculture or D.Ag.,§ was started in 1892. In

* This was designated as Licentiate of Medicine and Surgery or L. M. & S. in 1877 and Bachelor of Medicine and Surgery or M. B. B. S., in 1912.

† At this time the degree course was spread over 3 years only after the Matriculation.

‡ This was designated as Bachelor of Engineering or B.E. in 1912.

§ This was designated as Master of Engineering or M.E. in 1932.

§ This was designated as Licentiate of Agriculture or L.Ag. in 1900; Bachelor of Agriculture or B.Ag. in 1909 and B.Sc. (Agri.) in 1937.

the early years, the number of students who appeared for the university examinations was necessarily small. For example, in 1859, 132 candidates (all males) appeared for the Matriculation Examination and only 22 of them were declared successful. In 1903-04, however, the number of students who appeared for this examination increased to 3,547 boys and 87 girls of whom 1,350 boys and 49 girls were declared to be successful. In 1862, only 6 candidates appeared for the first B.A. Examination and 4 of them were declared to be successful; but in 1903-04, 486 candidates appeared for the B.A. Examination and 5 for the B.Sc. Examination of whom 356 and 2 respectively were declared to have been successful. The candidates for the other examinations also showed a similar increase and in 1903-04 as many as 102 candidates appeared for the LL.B. Examination, 65 for the L. M. & S. Examination, 25 for the L.C.E. Examination and 3 for the L.Ag. Examination.

A purely affiliating and examining body like the University of Bombay during this period does not really require a large campus or extensive administrative buildings. The University of Bombay was, however, a little fortunate in this respect because its early needs in these matters were liberally met by private charity. The Government of Bombay assigned a site for the University in an important area of the Fort and a munificent donation by Sir Cowasjee Jehangir enabled it to construct its imposing Convocation Hall in 1875. In 1864, Shri Premchand Roychand offered a generous donation of rupees two lakhs for the creation of a library and followed it up by another donation of an equal amount for the erection of a clock tower to be connected with the library and to be named after his mother, Rajabai. This donation resulted in the construction of one of the finest library buildings in this State and in the construction of the tallest clock tower in the City of Bombay. The work was started in 1869 and completed in 1878.

In these early years the administration of the University was a very simple affair. There was no system of university inspection or recognition of the secondary schools which sent up candidates to the Matriculation Examination and these functions were solely performed by the Education Department. Even in respect of colleges which were affiliated to the University, there was no system of periodical inspections and the only control which the University exercised over them was to call for certain information from time to time. The entire business of the University was, therefore, restricted to the holding of examinations and the conferment of degrees and the scale of this activity was so small that the University did not even have whole time Registrar; the post being held, on a part-time basis, by a professor of the Elphinstone College. The Senate was divided into four Faculties. But there was no Academic Council nor any Boards of Studies. The entire day-to-day administration was looked after by a Syndicate which was constituted under the regulations as it had not been specifically provided for by the Act of Incorporation. The total budget of the University was very small and even in 1903-04, it amounted to Rs. 2,42,011 only. The State did not give any grant-in-aid to the University at this time and its funds consisted solely of receipts from fees and endowments which amounted to

Rs. 1,60,108 and Rs. 81,903 respectively in 1903-04. The only difficulty that was experienced in its administration, if it is to be considered as a difficulty at all, was the inordinate increase in the total number of Fellows. As stated above, the Act of Incorporation of the University prescribed only the *minimum* number of Fellows and as the office of a Fellow was to be held for life and as additions to the ranks of Fellows continued to increase rapidly, the total number of Fellows stood at 333 in 1897-98 and 296 in 1901-02. It must, however, be pointed out that this increase in the number of Fellows did not add any financial burden to the University, because there was no provision for payment of travelling allowance to Fellows when they attended the meetings of the University or performed any other duty on its behalf.

Since the University had no teaching functions of any type, all teaching on its behalf was done by the affiliated colleges. In 1857, when the University was established, there were only three colleges in the State—the Elphinstone and the Grant Medical at Bombay and the Deccan at Poona. All these were affiliated to the University in 1860 and as newer colleges came into existence, the number of affiliated colleges began to grow. In 1903-04, the University had a total of sixteen* affiliated colleges, eleven of general education and five of special education. The eleven colleges of arts and science included the Elphinstone College, Bombay, (1860), the Deccan College, Poona (1860); the Wilson College, Bombay (1861); the St. Xavier's College, Bombay (1869); the Gujarat College, Ahmedabad (1879); the Rajaram College, Kolhapur (1880); the Baroda College, Baroda (1881); the Fergusson College, Poona (1884); the Samaldas College, Bhavnagar (1885); the D. J. Sind College, Karachi (1887); and the Bhauddin College, Junagadh. The five colleges of Professional Education included the Law College, Bombay (1860); the Grant Medical College, Bombay (1860); the College of Science, Poona (1865); which had two sections—one for Engineering and the other for Agriculture—and a Law Class attached to the Deccan College, Poona. The total number of students enrolled in all the affiliated colleges on 31st March, 1904, was 3,454 of whom only 79 were girls.† Of the 13 affiliated colleges in the State proper, Government conducted all the 5 colleges of Professional Education and two colleges of general education. The Rajaram College, Kolhapur, was conducted by the Kolhapur State and the Gujarat College, Ahmedabad, was under a Committee of Management.‡ The College at Baroda was conducted by the old Baroda State and has since become a part of the M. S. University of Baroda. The remaining three colleges were conducted by private enterprise, two by foreign missions and the third i. e. the Fergusson College, Poona, by the Deccan Education Society.

6 (4). *The Development of the University of Bombay (1904-28).*—The Indian Universities Act of 1904 which was passed at the instance of Lord

* The years within the brackets show the year in which the institution concerned was affiliated to the University of Bombay.

† These figures exclude the statistics of the Baroda College which are not available.

‡ Both these institutions have since come under Departmental management.

Curzon made a very radical change in the administration of the University. The Senate was now made more manageable of 100 Fellows of whom 20 were elected and the rest were either ex-officio or nominated. A Syndicate to look after the day-to-day administration of the University was statutorily constituted and authority was given to the University to undertake teaching functions as well. The power of granting or withdrawing recognition to colleges was now vested in Government instead of the Senate as formerly; but Government was to take its decision on the recommendations of the Senate. Government also started to give recurring and non-recurring grants to the University so that it was possible to carry out many an administrative reform which was long over-due. The system of paying travelling expenses to Fellows for attending the meetings of the University or for performance of duties on its behalf was started; periodical inspections of colleges affiliated to the University were organised; and in co-operation with the Department of Education, the University also began to grant recognition to secondary schools which sent up candidates for the Matriculation Examination. The entire administration of the University was, therefore, revolutionised between 1904 and 1928.

Even though the Act of 1904 had authorised the Universities to undertake teaching functions, very little was done in this direction till 1912 when the Government of India sanctioned large recurring and non-recurring grants. This enabled the University to draw up a definite programme of development on the advice of Sir Alfred Hopkinson, the Vice-Chancellor of the Victoria University, Manchester, who was specially invited for the purpose. In accordance with his recommendations, the University library was reorganised, a large number of new books was added, and a competent librarian was appointed. The second item of reform was the organisation of courses of lectures by eminent men from Europe and India. Very good progress was shown under this head, the courses organised including lectures from Prof. Ramsay Muir, Prof. Geddes, Dr. Moulton, Prof. J. S. Mackenzie, Sir Jagdish Bose, Dr. Michael Sadler and Prof. R. W. Sitaram. Thirdly, a beginning of teaching work was also made at the postgraduate level, the University arranging some courses of lectures for M.A., students. Fourthly, the University School of Economics and Sociology was established and began to function from 1919. Fifthly, grants for research work were awarded for the first time in the history of the University; and lastly, a programme of extension lectures and publications was also undertaken.

The extent of the teaching and research work actually organised was, however, small and, even during this period, the most important activity of the University was the holding of examinations. Almost all the degrees and diplomas instituted in the earlier period were continued and in addition, a number of other degrees and diplomas were also instituted, viz. LL.M., (1908); B.Hy. (1911); M.S. (1913); B.Sc. (1916); B. Com. (1917); D.Hy. (1917); B.T. (1924); and M.Com. (1927). The number of students appearing for the university examinations also increased very considerably as a result of the expansion of affiliated colleges.

The finances of the University showed a great improvement during this period. The Matriculation Examination brought in some revenue because the number of students appearing for it increased very largely. @ But the more important cause of the improvement was the institution of recurring grants from the State. In 1905, the first recurring grant of Rs. 10,000 was instituted. This was followed, in 1922, by an additional recurring grant of Rs. 45,000 and a non-recurring grant of Rs. 3,00,000. In 1913, a non-recurring grant of Rs. 2,00,000 was again given and in 1914, a recurring grant of Rs. 12,000 was sanctioned for the University School of Economics and Sociology. Since 1914, therefore, the recurring grant to the University stood at Rs. 67,000 per annum and between 1904 and 1928, non-recurring grants of about Rs. 6 lakhs were sanctioned. These amounts are not large, compared by modern standards. But their significance lies in the fact that it was the first time in the history of the University that such assistance was being given.

How these grants helped to develop teaching and research and to increase administrative efficiency has been described earlier. In addition, they enabled the University to construct buildings for its office and for the School of Economics and Sociology.* Moreover, several other activities were undertaken. In 1910, a Provincial Advisory Committee for Indian Students in England was formed under the control of Government. But as a result of the recommendations of the Lytton Committee, its place was taken by the University Information Bureau created in 1926. Inter-collegiate sports and competitions were also started during this period and the University Training Corps was organised for Military Education.†

The problem of the reform of the University was again taken up on the introduction of Dyarchy. A Committee to report on the subject was appointed in 1924 under the Chairmanship of the late Sir Chimanlal Setalvad; and on receipt of its recommendations, the Bombay University Act of 1928—the first Act to be enacted by the State Legislature for University Education—was passed. The main purpose underlying the changes introduced by the new Act, as stated in the preamble, was “to reconstitute the University to enable it to provide greater facilities for higher education and to conduct post-graduate teaching and research in all branches of learning, including technology, while continuing to exercise due control over the teaching given by colleges affiliated to it from time to time.” Its chief provisions were to extend the elective principle to the composition of the various authorities of the University and to entrust the technical part of the work to a newly constituted body, the Academic Council, which was composed entirely of persons connected directly with Education. The power of granting or withdrawing affiliation to colleges was continued with Government, while that of according sanction to the statutes framed by the Senate was vested in the Chancellor. Provision was also made for the appointment of a Rector and a

@ As stated earlier in Chapter V, the University did not hold the Matriculation from 1918 to 1929.

* The total cost of these was above 8 lakhs of rupees.

† For details, see Chapter XV.

statutory recurring grant of Rs. 1,17,000 was provided. The strength of the Senate was now raised to 144 of whom 11 were Ex-officio, 40 were Nominated and 93 were Elected.* Besides, donors of Rs. 1,00,000 or more were also authorised to nominate a Fellow for a specified term.

Another important development of this period was the increase in the number of affiliated colleges, especially of those under Indian management. Of the new colleges of general education established during this period, one i. e. the School of Economics and Sociology was conducted by the University. Government established the Karnatak College at Dharwar in 1917 to meet the needs of the Kannada areas and the Royal Institute of Science (now known as Institute of Science) in Bombay in 1920 with the primary object of furthering original research and post-graduate teaching in science. But five colleges under Indian management also came into existence—the New Poona College, (now called the S. P. College which was affiliated in 1916); the M. T. B. Arts College, Surat (1918); the Willingdon College, Sangli (1919); the D. G. National College Hyderabad, (Sind), (1922); and the H. P. T. College, Nasik (1924). The number of professional colleges affiliated to the University also increased very considerably during this period and stood at 10 in 1928. But as the maintenance of professional colleges is costly, the lead in this field was still with Government and local bodies. The College of Agriculture, Poona, was separated from the College of Science (which henceforth became a College of Engineering only) in 1907. Besides, the new professional colleges established during this period were the Sydenham College of Commerce and Economics, Bombay (1914); the Secondary Training College, Bombay (1922); the N. E. D. Engineering College, Karachi (1922); the Law College, Poona, (1924); the G. S. Medical College, Bombay (1925); and the Shahani Law College, Karachi (1926).†

6 (5). *The Development of the University of Bombay (1928-55).*—From 1928 to 1947, the University of Bombay was the only University in the State. Other Universities began to be established after 1948 and as they began to function, the jurisdiction of the Bombay University was reduced accordingly. Finally, under the Bombay University Act, 1953, the jurisdiction of the University was restricted to Greater Bombay. At present, therefore, the University of Bombay functions as a City University.

* These were elected by—

1. Principals of Colleges	13
2. University Teachers & Teachers (including Principals)	20
3. Headmasters of Schools	5
4. Public Associations	15
5. Registered Graduates	25
6. Faculties	10
7. Legislature	5
Total				93

† The Law Classes attached to the Deccan College, Poona, were closed during this period.

On the teaching side, the University made considerable progress during this period. In 1934, the University Department of Chemical Technology was founded. This was originally located in the East Wing of the Institute of Science but in June, 1943 it was removed to its own spacious building at Matunga. The main object of this Department is to form a link between science and industry so that the graduate in pure science, who is industrially minded, may prepare himself for an important part in industry. The Department, therefore, serves as a source for supplying highly trained personnel to Indian industries. It also functions as a home of research which tries to solve the problems suggested by industrialists and also to develop new ideas which may be tried out on a practical scale. The Department has received several endowments from the industrial community and is a striking example of the mutually beneficial collaboration that may be established between a university and industry. A University Department of Statistics was established in 1947 and a Department of Politics was added to the School of Economics and Sociology in 1948.*

During this period the scheme of post-graduate teaching was developed still further. Reference has already been made to the courses of lectures for M.A. students which began to be organised in 1914. These were continued for some time and from 1920 the scheme, so far as the Bombay City was concerned, was put on a definite inter-collegiate basis, bringing about a closer co-operation between the University and its colleges in post-graduate teaching. A revised scheme was introduced in 1924. But in spite of all this experimentation, the work was not placed on a satisfactory footing even until 1928. A significant departure was, therefore, made and the new University Act provided for the recognition of teachers in colleges as university teachers for post-graduate instruction and research. A number of teachers from affiliated colleges and recognised post-graduate institutions were accordingly recognised for giving instruction to post-graduate students preparing for examination by papers or by research. The work done by the recognised university teachers thus supplemented the work done in the University Departments. An even more radical departure was introduced under the Act of 1953. All post-graduate instruction now became a special responsibility of the University and was to be imparted by the teachers of the University. For this purpose, teachers belonging to affiliated colleges and recognised post-graduate institutions have since been recognised as teachers of the University in addition to those who are working in the Departments of the University itself and they are being paid honoraria for the work done by them.

In spite of this development of teaching activity, the work of holding examinations continued to dominate university activities in this period also. As in the past, a number of new degrees and diplomas were instituted during this period. They include D.Sc. (1934); B.Sc. (Tech.) in

* A Department of Military Studies was created in 1943, but it had to be closed in 1948.

1936; D.Litt. (1937); Ph.D. (1937); M.Sc. (Tech.) in 1938; M.Ed. (by thesis) in 1939; T.D. (1940); D.P.H. (1941); Diploma in Librarianship (1944); D.A. (1946); D.Ped. (1947); B.D.S. (1948); D.V. & D. (1948); D.L.O. (1948); M.Ed. (by papers) in 1948; B.Sc. (Veterinary Science) in 1949; B.Pharm. (1950); T.D.D. (1950); D.M.R.E. (1950); B.Text. (1951); B.Sc. (Med.) in 1952 and D.P.M. (1954). Besides, the degrees of M.Sc. (Medical), Bachelor of Chemical Engineering and Bachelor of Architecture have been instituted but not yet awarded. The Matriculation Examination was held by the University for the last time in 1948 when the Secondary School Certificate Examination Board was established. On the constitution of the S. S. C. Examination Board, the Bombay University was allowed to conduct the Entrance Examination from 1949-1952 only for the students from Goa and admission to the University was granted to the students who had passed the Entrance Examination as well as to those who had passed the S.S.C. Examination (subject to certain conditions of eligibility).

Until 1947 the jurisdiction of the Bombay University was very extensive and included the State proper, the Indian States closely associated with it (including those now comprised in Saurashtra) and Sind. On 31st March, 1947, the total number of affiliated colleges was 79 with an enrolment of 41,829 as against 29 colleges with an enrolment of 11,059 on 31st March, 1927. Of these 79 colleges, 55 with 32,311 students were in the State proper (exclusive of the old Indian States), 13 with 5,282 were in the Indian States and 10 with 5,286 students were in Sind. With the separation of Pakistan, the colleges in Sind ceased to be affiliated to the University. Their number was further reduced with the establishment of other regional universities and on 31st March, 1955 there were only 34 colleges with 34,216 students in Bombay City. Of these, 15 were colleges of arts and science with a total enrolment of 22,990 students. These included the four arts and science colleges affiliated prior to 1928 to which a reference has already been made and eleven new colleges opened during this period viz. the Ismail Yusuf College, (1930); the Ram Narain Ruia College, (1937); the Khalsa College, (1937); the Sophia College for Women, (1941); the Bhavan's College of Arts and Science, (1946); the Siddharth College, (1941); the Jai Hind College, (1948); the R. D. and S. H. National College, Bandra (1949); the D. G. Ruparel College, (1952); the Kishanchand Chelaram College, (1954) and the D. E. Society's Bombay College (1954). The remaining 19* colleges with an enrolment of 11,226 students were institutions of Professional and Special Education. These included five professional colleges affiliated prior to 1928 which have already been referred to and ten additional colleges opened or affiliated during this period, viz. (1) R. A. Poddar College of Commerce and Economics, (1941); (2) Sir C. E. M. Dental College, (1945); (3) Topivala National Medical College, (1946); (4) Bombay Veterinary College, (which

* These include four institutions of a collegiate standard but not affiliated to the Bombay University viz. the R. A. Podar Ayurvedic Medical College, the Tata Institute of Social Sciences, College of Nautical Engineering, Bombay and the Training Institute of Physical Education.

was an old institution established in 1887 but affiliated to the University in 1946); (5) the Victoria Jubilee Technical Institute (which also is an old institution established on 1887, but affiliated to the University in 1946); (6) Sir J. J. School of Art (which also is an old institution established in 1857 but affiliated to the University in 1952); (7) St. Xavier's Institute of Education (1953); (8) Siddharth College of Commerce and Economics (1953); (9) the New Law College (1954) and (10) Nair Hospital Dental College, (1954). The position may be summed up by saying that, on 31st March 1955, the Bombay University had granted affiliation to 15 arts and science colleges, 2 colleges of law, 5 colleges of medicine, 1 college of veterinary science, 1 college of architecture, 1 college of engineering, 3 colleges of commerce and 2 colleges of education and that the City had, in addition, four institutions of a collegiate standard but not affiliated to any University.*

Among other events of importance which occurred in this period, mention may be made of the great encouragement given by the University to research in several fields. The institution of research degrees and the facilities provided for research in the affiliated institutions were mainly responsible for this progress. It must be pointed out, however, that the University also sanctioned large grants for research from time to time and that it gave a lakh of rupees to the Bhandarkar Oriental Research Institute for the monumental edition of the *Mahabharat* being edited by it. In 1931, a scheme of medical examination of students was introduced but for several reasons it had to be discontinued in 1946. Physical training, however, has been made compulsory since 1937. Hostel facilities have also been provided by the construction of the Birla and University Hostels which were declared open by Dr. S. Radhakrishnan, the Vice-President of India, in 1952 and the University Buildings were extended in order to provide accommodation for the expanding teaching and administrative sections of the University.

The finances of the University underwent several changes during this period. The statutory grant to the University was fixed at Rs. 1,17,000 under the Act of 1928, and the position remained unchanged until 1947. With the establishment of the Secondary School Certificate Examination Board, the University lost control over the Matriculation and was, in consequence, deprived of a very large source of recurring revenues. In the meantime, there was a great increase in expenditure owing to the development of its teaching activities and the rise in the cost of living due to the Second World War. Government, therefore, revised the old basis of grant-in-aid and recurring as well as non-recurring grants are now being sanctioned on a much larger scale than in the past. The

* Some Institutions affiliated to the S. N. D. T. Indian Women's University are also located in the City. See Section VI *supra*.

following table shows the grants paid to the Bombay University since 1947-48:—

TABLE NO. 6 (1)

State Grants to Bombay University

Year	Government Grant
	Rs.
1947-48.	3,02,765
1948-49	3,29,702
1949-50	3,76,209
1950-51	9,00,200
1951-52	9,55,000
1952-53	6,25,000
1953-54	6,25,000
1954-55	6,25,000

N. B.—For grants given to the Bombay University up to 1946-47 when it was the only University in the State, see Table VI (7) *supra*.

It may also be mentioned in passing that, being the oldest University in the State, the Bombay University has been able to obtain a large number of endowments whose total face value was Rs. 102 lakhs in 1955.

The University is now functioning under the Bombay University Act of 1953. Its special features are the following:—

(a) Reconstruction of the University as a teaching and federal University. (All affiliated colleges become constituent colleges);

(b) Reduction in the number of elections;

(c) The strengthening of the academic element in the Senate, the Academic Council and Boards of Studies;

(d) The creation of Boards of University Teaching, composed predominantly of the academic element and empowered to co-ordinate, control and regulate post-intermediate and post-graduate instruction, teaching and training in affiliated colleges and recognised institutions and to make recommendations to the Syndicate for conducting such instruction, teaching and training in university colleges and institutions;

(e) Extension of the powers of the University and its authorities by including activities such as External Teaching, University Extension Courses, training of students for competitive examinations for service under the Union and the State Governments, the establishment of an Employment Bureau, Students' Union and Board of Students' Welfare; and

(f) Provision for recognition of institutions of research and specialised studies.

The new Act makes a great advance over the Act of 1928 in respect of the University's control over post-intermediate instruction in the colleges. Under the Act of 1928, such control was distant and indirect.

Under the new Act, the colleges become integral parts of a federal university system and the University would be in a position to improve post-intermediate instruction by husbanding the resources of the colleges, avoiding duplication and encouraging specialisation. The University itself can, under the new Act, undertake post-intermediate instruction in its own institutions, if necessary.

These far-reaching provisions of the Act are gradually being implemented. A good beginning has been made to co-ordinate teaching at the post-graduate level and after the position is consolidated, further steps may be taken to co-ordinate the teaching at the post-intermediate level.

II. POONA UNIVERSITY

6 (6). *Establishment of the Poona University.*—Throughout the nineteenth century, no move was made for the establishment of additional universities in the State. Higher education had not expanded on a very large scale and it was generally believed that a single university would be enough to deal with the small number of affiliated colleges that then existed. With the turn of the century, however, the position changed radically. The expansion of Collegiate Education was so great that additional universities came to be justified merely on the basis of numbers. Similarly, numerous inconveniences which result from having only a single university for a vast area now began to be keenly felt and on grounds of decentralisation also, the demand for additional universities began to be pressed. However, a feeling began to grow that a single university would not be able to do justice to the different requirements of the linguistic regions of the State and that the cultural development of the people would be better and faster if a separate University were to be established for each linguistic region. Ideas of this type slowly gathered strength and received a concrete form in 1917 when the Bombay Presidency Education Conference presided over by Sir Narayan Chandavarkar adopted a resolution in favour of the establishment of regional universities. The principle was accepted by the Setalwad Committee which recommended the creation of Universities for Maharashtra, Gujarat and Karnatak and stressed particularly the need for the establishment of a University in Poona which, in the opinion, of the Committee, had all the necessary raw material for a university. But for several reasons, no action was taken on this recommendation. In 1932, Dr. M. R. Jayakar and others again made a representation to Government asking for a University for Maharashtra, but it was only in 1942 that Government appointed a Committee under the Chairmanship of Dr. Jayakar to report on the feasibility of a University for Maharashtra and also on its form, constitution, jurisdiction, and other allied matters. The committee recommended the establishment of a regional University for Maharashtra at Poona. The Committee laid special emphasis on the following features of the proposed University:—

(a) It should have a strong and efficient centre of university work which should maintain a close contact with the intellectual, economic and social life of Maharashtra. The Committee specifically urged,

with a view to getting over the narrowness inherent in a regional cultural centre, that the University should be a seat of university learning "which recognises no frontiers or barriers except those of the human mind itself."

(b) The University should take over and conduct directly all teaching in Poona at the post-intermediate and post-graduate level. It was felt that this reform would make the best possible use of the existing resources in Poona. It would save, to some extent, "duplication of library and laboratory equipment. It would also save considerable energies of college teachers, spent today in doing routine work, and direct them to specialised studies, and it might help a number of this body of teachers to engage themselves to a limited extent in research work."

(c) The University should organise its courses in such a manner as to contribute to the study of Marathi language and literature, of the civilisation, art and culture of Maharashtra, and in general, of all the distinctive features of the life and thought of the people of all classes and communities.

(d) The University should diffuse widely the benefits of higher education among all classes by organising centres of extramural teaching and university extension activities, and by encouraging the production of popular literature on scientific and cultural subjects.

6 (7). *The Poona University Act, 1948.*—The report of the Jayakar Committee was accepted by Government and the Poona University Act was passed in 1948. It introduced several new ideas in university administration and organisation which were later on introduced in the other University Acts also. The first of these is that the supreme controlling authority of the University, viz. the Court should be a body which represents not only the teaching profession, but also the educational view point of the non-teaching classes and the local bodies. The Poona University Court is, therefore so constituted that, in addition to the heads of University Departments, principals of the affiliated colleges and heads of recognised institutions who are ex-officio members, representation is also given thereon in addition to the teachers and headmasters of secondary schools and teachers of affiliated colleges, to local bodies like Municipalities and District Local Boards in the University area, registered trade unions and registered graduates. The second idea is that the element of election should be reduced to the minimum in the administration of the University, and accordingly, the various authorities of the University are so constituted that the vagaries of the ballot box are restricted to very narrow limits and due representation is given to the interests concerned on every organ of the University. The third idea was that the University should have a double function, it should be a teaching university for the colleges in the Poona area and it should also be an affiliating university for the colleges outside Poona City. In order to implement this suggestion, the Act provides that all post-intermediate instruction in the Poona Area and all post-graduate teaching in the University area should be under the direct control of the University

The fourth idea was that the University should have specific administrative organs for conducting extramural and extension activities and for spreading a knowledge of scientific and cultural subjects among the masses. For this purpose, the Act has provided for the constitution of a Board of Extramural Studies. All these features except the combined role under which the University acts as a teaching university for one area and as an affiliating university for another, have been incorporated in the other University Acts also.

6 (8). *Development of the Poona University (1948-55).*—During the last seven years, the University has made considerable progress under the guidance of Dr. M. R. Jayakar who has been associated with the movement for the establishment of a regional University for Maharashtra for the last 30 years and who has been the Vice-Chancellor of the University from its inception to the end of the period under review.

Government has granted to the University the campus of the old Government House at Ganeshkhind, Poona, which extends over 412 acres and has a number of residential and other buildings. This is considered to be one of the most beautiful university sites in the whole of India and has become a great asset to the University. The main buildings now provide accommodation for the principal administrative block, library, convocation hall and post-graduate class rooms of the University. All post-graduate departments and libraries are also located on the campus and a new building has been constructed for the Chemistry Department. Another building for the University hostel has been constructed and a phased programme to provide hostel blocks on the campus has also been prepared. The entire teaching staff of the University and a large proportion of its administrative personnel have been provided with residential accommodation on the campus and a development plan for the buildings and other amenities required on the campus has been drawn up and is being implemented as funds become available.

Good progress has also been recorded in post-graduate teaching and the following departments of post-graduate teaching and research have been instituted so far:—

1. The Department of Chemistry;
2. The Department of Physics;
3. The Department of Botany;
4. The Department of Zoology;
5. The Department of Mathematics and Statistics;
6. The Department of Geography;
7. The Department of Sanskrit;
8. The Department of Experimental Psychology;
9. The Department of Marathi; and
10. The Department of Politics.

The University was required, under the Act, to take over post-intermediate education in the Poona area. This, however, proved to be a

tough problem and several difficulties were experienced in implementing the directive of the Act. But as a result of continuous efforts, the University has at last been able to organise post-intermediate instruction at one centre so far as the arts subjects are concerned and in three centres for science subjects.* The initial difficulties which resulted in a controversy in the University have now been overcome and it is hoped that greater progress would be achieved in the future.

The University has also constituted a Board of Extramural Studies which has made considerable progress. During 1954-55, the total number of Extramural Centres, conducted by the Board, was 45 and the total number of lectures arranged at the various Centres was 471. The lectures covered a wide range of subjects and were particularly useful for those who have had no benefit of University Education but who were anxious to widen the horizon of their knowledge. This is the main feature of the University's attempt to take University Education to the very door of the villager.

The University has also been able to set up a Foreign Universities Information and Employment Bureau which, in addition to its usual work, has also been able to organise a series of lectures to college students on the different aspects of the employment situation.

Among the other important events that occurred during this period, the following may be mentioned:—

(a) In 1951-52, the University instituted B.A. (external) and M.A. (external) Degrees for the benefit of students who are unable to pursue their studies in a college. The degrees are open to gainfully employed persons and married women within the jurisdiction of the University. Poona, it may be pointed out, was the first statutory university in the State to try this experiment.

(b) In the same year, the University accepted the proposal made by Sir C. P. Ramaswami Aiyar to start a Centre for International Indological Research. Sir C. P. Ramaswami has given an initial donation of Rs. 25,000 for the purpose. The object of the Centre is to undertake such projects as could be best accomplished only through the active collaboration of Indian and foreign scholars.

(c) In 1952-53, the University conveyed the Indian Language Development Conference. Several important recommendations in respect of the Indian language problem were adopted at the Conference.

When the University of Poona was constituted, the number of affiliated colleges was 23 with 11,293 students. On 31st March, 1955, the total number of colleges affiliated to the University was 26 with an enrolment of 16,197 students. Of these 5 colleges of arts and science and 3 professional colleges which were established prior to 1928 have already been referred to. The new colleges established since then include (1) Nowrosjee Wadia College, Poona; (2) M. E. Society's Arts and Science College, Poona;

* In Medicine, Agriculture, Engineering, Education, Law and Commerce, Instruction both at the post-intermediate and post-graduate level is given in the corresponding constituent colleges.

(3) Dayanand College of Arts, Sholapur; (4) Sangmeshwar College, Sholapur; (5) Ahmednagar College, Ahmednagar; (6) M. J. College of Arts and Science, Jalgaon; (7) Pratap College, Amalner; (8) R. P. Gogate College Ratnagiri; (9) Chhatrapati Shivaji College, Satara; (10) Sadguru Gadge Maharaj College, Karad; (11) Gopal Krishna Gokhale College, Kolhapur; (12) S. M. T. Teachers' College Kolhapur; (13) Tilak College of Education, Poona; (14) New Engineering College, Sangli; (15) B. J. Medical College, Poona; (16) B. M. College of Commerce, Poona; (17) Dayanand College of Commerce, Sholapur and (18) Shahaji Law College, Kolhapur. Besides there are three Ayurvedic colleges under the jurisdiction of the University viz. Ayurved Mahavidyalaya, Poona; Ayurved Mahavidyalaya Ahmednagar and Aryangla Vaidyak Mahavidyalaya, Satara. The Poona University has created a Faculty of Ayurvedic Medicine and out of the three Ayurved Mahavidyalayas, Ayurved Mahavidyalaya, Poona has been affiliated to the Poona University.

The following table shows the grants paid to the Poona University by the State Government:—

TABLE NO. 6 (2)
Grants to Poona University (1948-49 to 1954-55)

Year.	Recurring Grant.	Non-recurring Grant.	Total.
	Rs.	Rs.	
1948-49	1,43,500	...	1,43,500
1949-50	3,85,438	...	3,85,438
1950-51	4,50,000	55,476	5,05,476
1951-52	4,35,000	...	4,35,000
1952-53	4,70,000	...	4,70,000
1953-54	4,70,000	74,988	5,44,988
1954-55	4,70,000	1,04,400	5,74,400

The Poona University has been well-provided with campus and buildings in comparison with the other regional universities in the State. But being a new institution, it has not been able to build up endowment funds and its finances need to be strengthened considerably. Its main asset, however, is the high tradition of learning which the Deccan in general and Poona in particular has fostered. Private enterprise in Education, motivated by an unswerving devotion to learning and scholarship based largely on self-sacrifice, has been the key-note of the educational progress of Maharashtra so far. With this tradition to support it, the Poona University can face the future with hope and confidence.

III MAHARAJA SAYAJIRAO UNIVERSITY, BARODA

6 (9). *Establishment of the M. S. University of Baroda.*—The idea of establishing a University at Baroda to meet the educational needs of the old Baroda State was engaging the attention of the Baroda Government since 1909. As early as 1925, a Commission to examine the problem was appointed and it made out a strong case for the establishment of a residential and teaching university at Baroda. No action could be taken on the report owing to several difficulties. But the idea continued to grow and several institutions of higher education were started and developed in Baroda in the following two decades. In 1947, another committee was appointed under the Chairmanship of Shri K. M. Munshi to consider and report on the problem; and on receipt of its recommendations, the Government of Baroda established a teaching and residential university at Baroda on 30th April, 1949 and named it the *Maharaja Sayajirao University of Baroda* in commemoration of the great services which this enlightened ruler had rendered to the people of the State. On the merger of the Baroda State in 1949, however, it became a statutory university of the State of Bombay.

6 (10). *Development of the M. S. University of Baroda.*—This University whose jurisdiction extends over an area lying within a distance of 10 miles from its office, inherited all institutions of higher education which the old Baroda Government used to conduct in the City of Baroda. They included (1) the Baroda Arts and Science College; (2) Pratapsinh College of Commerce and Economics; (3) The Secondary Teachers Training College; (4) Kala Bhavan and Engineering College; (5) the Music College and (6) the Oriental Institute. Moreover, the Medical College, the Sanskrit Mahavidyalaya* and the Museum and Picture Gallery also became the constituent and recognised institutions of the University, although their management was continued with Government.

With the inheritance of these splendid resources and with the help of the liberal grant-in-aid received from the University Grants Commission† and the Government of Bombay, it was possible for the University to make very good progress during the last six years.

* This has since been taken over by the University.

† The University Grants Commission have sanctioned the following grants to this University towards its First Five Year Plan of development:—

Non-recurring grants		Rs.
Equipment for Science Faculty	...	1,83,000
Library of the Science Faculty	...	63,000
Books on Humanities	...	30,000
Books on Science and Technology	...	20,000
Ramayan Scheme	...	20,000
Library Building	...	5,00,000
Development of the Faculty of Technology	...	4,49,333
Equipment for the Faculty of Home Science	...	21,000
Recurring grant		
Development of the Faculty of Technology and Engineering.	...	14,667

The University began its work in 1949 with six Faculties—Arts, Science, Education and Psychology, Commerce, Medicine and Technology and Engineering. But in the following year, three new Faculties were added—Home Science, Fine Arts, and Social Work. Of all the universities in this State, it is only in the M. S. University of Baroda that these Faculties exist and they form its most distinctive feature. From June, 1950, all these nine Faculties began to function and, during the last five years, the old courses were considerably revised and several new courses were started. Additional buildings were constructed and the library was greatly improved. A number of important research projects were undertaken. Some of them have been successfully completed and work on others is in progress. In short, it may be said that under the guidance of Shrimati Hansa Mehta who has been the Vice-Chancellor of the University throughout the period under review, considerable progress has been made during the last six years in almost every field of university activity.

Among the principal events of the last six years, the following may be mentioned:—

(1) The first year and intermediate classes of the Faculties of Arts and Commerce were grouped together in a separate Intermediate College.

(2) The Oriental Institute and the Sanskrit Mahavidyalaya were continued as independent institutions, but their work was co-ordinated with the Faculty of Arts by recognising some members of their staff as post-graduate teachers in the Faculty.

(3) The University started holding its own examinations from 1951.

(4) The new Departments organised during this period include among others Archeology and Hindi (1950); Sociology (1951); Linguistics (1955); Statistics (1950); Botany and Zoology (1950); Geology (1951); Geography (1952); Bio-Chemistry (1955); Psychology (1951); Educational Administration (1954); Banking (1952); Textile Chemistry (1952) and Textile Engineering (1954).

(5) A Department of Extension Services has been added to the Faculty of Education and Psychology. The project which is spread over three years and is estimated to cost over Rs. two lakhs is being financed by the Government of India.

(6) An experimental high school was organised under the Faculty of Education and Psychology.

(7) Under the Medical Faculty, a special research unit, known as the Sheth Ujamshi Pitambardas Ayurvedic Research Unit, has been organised.

(8) The research projects undertaken by the various University departments include among others (a) Publication of the critical editions of old Gujarati texts; (b) Sociological studies like a survey of Mahuvalm (a coastal town in Saurashtra), a field study of a multi-caste village in Gujarat, a study of urbanisation and industrialisation in

villages of South Gujarat; (c) Survey of the socio-economic and industrial conditions of Baroda City; (d) Scientific enquiries into the history of Gujarat during the Muslim Period; (e) Editing the records of the old Baroda Residency; (f) Preparation and publication of a critical and illustrated edition of *Ramayana* (the whole scheme is estimated to cost Rs. 8,25,000); (g) Compilation of a cultural chronology of Gujarat from the earliest times to 1947; (h) Research in vocational and educational guidance; (i) A comprehensive survey of unemployment in Baroda City; (j) A survey of the effects of tenancy legislation in Baroda District; (k) Research in textile and allied industries in collaboration with the Textile and Allied Industries Research Organisation; and (l) Several Ayurvedic researches conducted by the Sheth U. P. Ayurvedic Research Unit.

The University library has been considerably developed. The University Grants Commission and the Bombay Government have each sanctioned a grant of Rs. five lakhs for the construction of University library building which is estimated to cost Rs. 11 lakhs. Construction work has already been started and it is hoped to be completed by the end of 1956. Meanwhile, efforts are being made to increase the stock of books. In addition to the annual University grant of Rs. 20,000, the University Grants Commission sanctioned a grant of Rs. 30,000 for books. Allotment of books worth about Rs. 62,000 has also been received from the Wheat Loan Fund, and 300 volumes of important indexes and bibliographies were received as a gift from U. S. Book Exchange Inc. and the Library of Congress, Washington. The total number of books in the library now is 40,170 and it subscribes to 477 journals. Besides the University library, there are libraries in all Faculties and Institutions. The total book stock of these libraries is 1,10,321 and the number of journals subscribed to by them is 407.

Several additional buildings have been put up during the last six years to accommodate the growing activities of the University. A new building has been constructed for the Faculty of Home Science. Four new halls to accommodate 556 men students and one hall to accommodate 160 women students are constructed at a cost of Rs. 31.55 lakhs. A loan of Rs. 8 lakhs is obtained from Government of India for constructing two new halls to accommodate 230 men students. The estimated cost of these halls is Rs. 12 lakhs. The halls provide spacious reading rooms, common rooms and recreation rooms and grounds. There is a resident Warden in each Hall and a Medical Officer is provided for medical assistance to the inmates and to supervise sanitation.

The Faculty of Fine Arts conducts courses for the B.A. (Fine) and M.A. (Fine) Degrees and also for a post-graduate Diploma in Museology. It also provides Diploma courses in Painting, Sculpture, Applied Arts and Certificate courses in Photography, Lithography, Pottery, Wood-work and Bronze-casting. The College of Music which the University inherited has now been reorganised and developed into the College of Indian Music, Dance and Dramatics. It prepares students for the Degrees of B. Mus. and M. Mus. and also conducts Diploma courses in Music (vocal

and instrumental), Dance and Dramatics. The educational programme of the College is divided into preparatory and specialisation courses. The preparatory courses aim at finding out the capacity of students and their main interest by introducing them to a group of relevant art forms; and the specialisation courses consist of intensive practical training, a sound knowledge of cultural and historical background, and the aesthetic significance of one major subject. Besides these subjects, English language and cultural history are also added in order to raise the standard.

The Faculty of Home Science provides courses for B.Sc. (Home) and M.Sc. (Home) Degrees. A nursery school is attached to this Faculty to serve as a laboratory for its Department of Child Development. This Faculty is very well equipped and staffed and at present Baroda is the only University in the State which provides this course.

The Faculty of Social work provides a course leading to the M. S. W. Degree. In respect of this course also, Baroda is the only University in the State to have this provision. A special feature of the work of this Faculty is the training it provides for social work in rural areas.

A post-graduate Diploma in Banking, first of its kind in a university, has been started from June, 1954 in the Faculty of Commerce. An undergraduate Diploma in Co-operation has also been started from June, 1954 in the Faculty of Commerce.

A Degree course in Textile Engineering and another in Textile Technology have been started from June, 1953 and from June, 1955 respectively in the Faculty of Technology and Engineering.

Instruction in a Degree course in Architecture in place of the old Diploma course in Architecture is being provided in the Faculty of Technology and Engineering from June, 1954.

The following table shows the grants given to this University by the State Government:—

TABLE No. 6 (3)

State Grants to the M. S. University, Baroda (1949-55)

Year.	Grants.*		Total.
	Recurring.	Non-Recurring.	
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
1949-50	...	8,00,000	8,00,000
1950-51	...	12,06,000	12,06,000
1951-52	...	12,44,653	12,44,653
1952-53	...	12,50,000	75,000
1953-54	...	12,50,000	4,60,000
1954-55	...	12,50,000	3,50,000

* These grants include the expenditure on the ex-State institutions now transferred to the control of the University.

IV. KARNATAK UNIVERSITY

6 (11). *The Establishment of the Karnatak University.*—Higher education in Karnatak is comparatively of recent origin and may be said to begin only in 1917 with the establishment of the Karnatak College. During the next 30 years, however, considerable progress was made in the field of higher education in the Kannad areas of the State. The Karnatak College which had begun as a small intermediate college in 1917 had, by 1942, blossomed into a full-fledged institution teaching several arts and science courses upto the degree stage. In 1942, the K. L. E. Society, Belgaum, established an arts and science college at Belgaum. By 1947, five more colleges had been established, viz., the S. T. College Belgaum, the K. E. Board's College, Dharwar, the Basaveshwar College, Bagalkot, and the Vijay College, Bijapur. By 1947, therefore, Karnatak had a sufficiently large number of institutions imparting higher education.

The idea of establishing regional universities was, as stated already, slowly gathering strength since 1917. The people of Karnatak also began to cherish the dream of a university of their own. The idea, however, did not take any practical shape till 1926 when the Andhra University Bill, contemplating the inclusion of the Bellary District within the jurisdiction of that University, was introduced in the Madras Legislative Assembly in 1926. The public of Bellary and the Kannada Sahitya Parishad launched a vigorous protest against this attempt to include a Kannada district within the jurisdiction of a non-Kannada regional university. As a result of this agitation, the Bellary District was not included in the jurisdiction of the Andhra University, and the first Karnatak University Association was formed with the object of bringing into existence a separate university for the Karnatak area. The movement received an additional impetus after the appointment of the Maharashtra University Committee in 1942. A Karnatak university conference was convened in Belgaum in 1942 and was followed by the formation of another Karnatak University Association. A second conference was held in Dharwar in October, 1943, when prominent Kannada educationists discussed the future of higher education in Karnatak and chalked out a programme of work for the early establishment of a Karnatak university. A Karnatak University Association was formed in Dharwar but was later amalgamated with the Association constituted in Belgaum in the preceding year. The 28th of September, 1946 was observed as the Karnatak University Day all over the region and a deputation waited on Shri B. G. Kher with a request that immediate steps be taken by Government to establish a university for Karnatak. Government accepted the suggestion and appointed the Karnatak University Committee on 17th April, 1947, under the Chairmanship of Justice N. S. Lokur. The Karnatak University Bill, based on the recommendations of the Committee, was passed by the Bombay Legislature in April, 1948 and the Karnatak University was incorporated on the 1st of March, 1950.

6 (12). *The Building Programme.*—The very first difficulty which the Karnatak University had to face was to find accommodation for its administrative office and teaching departments. To begin with, the University

office was accommodated in three rooms in the right wing of the Training College building at Dharwar. During 1950, four additional rooms from the Training College building were spared for the University. By the end of 1951, the entire Training College building and 25 rooms in the adjoining hostel were placed at the disposal of the University. Even then, the problem of accommodation was still very acute, as the University office, the post-graduate departments, the library, the hostel for post-graduate students, had all to be housed in this building. It was, therefore, decided to construct new buildings for the University without delay.

Government granted a beautiful and extensive site of over 300 acres to the University for its campus.* On this site, Dr. Rajendra Prasad, President of the Republic of India, laid the foundation stone of the administrative building on 30th March, 1951. The construction of the building was completed in August, 1953 at a cost of Rs. 2,60,000 and its opening ceremony was performed by the Vice-President of the Indian Republic, Dr. S. Radhakrishnan, on the 26th of October, 1953.

By 1954, plans were prepared for another building to house mainly the post-graduate departments of the University. The building is estimated to cost about Rs. 35 lakhs. The northern half of the front wing and northern wing will house the laboratories and the Science Departments of the University, the southern half of the front wing will accommodate the Arts Departments, and the southern wing will house the Library, the Reading Room and the Museum. In the centre, there will be an auditorium which will also serve as the Convocation Hall. The foundation stone of this building was laid by Shri Dinkarrao Desai, on the 14 of January 1955, and it is hoped that, with the completion of this building, the accommodation problem of the University will be solved for the next 15 years or more.

6 (13). *Development of the Karnatak University*.—On 31st March, 1955, the total number of colleges affiliated to the Karnatak University was 14.8 colleges of General Education and 6 colleges of Professional Education. Of these 14 institutions, the seven colleges that were started prior to 1947 have already been referred to. The remaining institutions include (1) Rani Parvati Devi College, Belgaum; (2) J. S. Science and Banashankari Arts College, Dharwar; (3) Kanara College, Kumta; (4) Kadsiddleshwar College, Hubli; (5) B. V. Bhoomreddy College of Engineering and Technology, Hubli; (6) J. G. College of Commerce, Hubli and (7) K. L. Society's College of Commerce, Belgaum. On 31st March, 1955, the total number of students enrolled in all the affiliated colleges of the University was 6,908.

At the time of its incorporation, the Karnatak University was mainly an affiliating university. But the Report of the Karnatak University Committee had observed that it should ultimately grow into a residential institution with emphasis on post-graduate instruction, affiliation being one of its subsidiary functions. Accordingly, the University has been

* This is popularly known as Chota Mahableshwar and is situated at a distance of about two miles from Dharwar.

steadily building up post-graduate departments during the last three years. The Departments of Kannada and Statistics were given top priority and were started in June, 1952. The Department of Chemistry was started in August, 1953, and the Department of Physics started functioning from October of the same year. The Department of Geology was started in February, 1954 and the Departments of Economics, History and Politics were started in June, 1955. In the absence of a permanent building of its own, the University has provided reasonably adequate laboratories, equipment etc. in the Training College buildings; but it is hoped that the laboratories will ere long be housed in the University's own building. Thanks to the liberal grants from the Central Government for equipment and laboratories, these Departments have started functioning on a proper basis and it is hoped that sound traditions of research and post-graduate teaching will be established in the near future.

The University has also built up a fairly good library during the last four years. At present, the total number of books in the library is nearly 22,000 and the number of periodicals received is 308.

The University started a scheme of extension lectures under its auspices in 1952. For this purpose, a special Board of Extramural Studies has been set up and lectures are being regularly arranged at important centres in rural areas. A few of these lectures are selected for being published under the auspices of the University *Prachara Upanyasa Mala Series*, in the form of small booklets which are priced at only four annas with a view to bring them within easy reach of the common man.

At the University centre, lectures of eminent scholars are also arranged from time to time and some of these lectures have since been published. Notable among such lectures are those of Justice Gajendragadkar on the "Hindu Code Bill" and Dr. R. D. Ranade on "Introduction to Karnatak Mysticism." Dr. Ranade has continued his lectures on "Karnatak Mysticism" and it is proposed to publish these lectures in two volumes. The first volume will contain the source of Karnatak Mysticism and the second will provide a critical and constructive exposition of it.

The Department of Kannada has undertaken the preparation of a comprehensive history of Kannada literature. An Editorial Board has been formed with Professor T. N. Srekantiah, Professor and Head of the Department of Kannada, as Editor and Chairman and a brief synopsis outlining the approach to the various problems has been published. It is hoped that the work of compilation will commence shortly.

In addition to the regular research work carried on by students for research degrees, the University Departments and the teachers in affiliated colleges have been carrying out independent research schemes sponsored by the Central Government. The following are the research schemes in progress:—

- (1) Assessment of the occupational and employment structure of Hubli City.
- (2) Mechanism of Explosions.
- (3) Preparation and Standardization of Achievement Tests in the various subjects in the Standard VII.

(4) Rotational Energy in Band Spectra of Diatomic Molecules.

(5) Millipedes of Karnatak region of India, including Bombay-Karnatak, Mysore and Mangalore.

(6) Direct Synthesis of Sulphones.

A Five Year Plan has been prepared and approved by the Senate at its meeting held on 26th February, 1955. It envisages the starting of a number of post-graduate departments beginning with History, Economics and Politics in 1955-56. Departments of Hindi, Sanskrit and Prakrit Languages, English, Education, Philosophy, Linguistics, Sociology, Politics, Urdu and Persian on the Arts and Social Sciences side and Mathematics, Geography, Physical Chemistry, Botany and Zoology, Mining and Metallurgy on the Science side, are proposed to be started during the Second Five Year Plan. The plan includes the construction of the University building described earlier and also the construction of a hostel for students and residential buildings for the teaching staff. It is hoped that entire building programme for which the Government of Bombay has sanctioned a non-recurring grant of Rs. 5 lakhs per annum for a period of three years in the first instance will be completed by 1960-61.

The following table shows the grants sanctioned by Government to Karnatak University since 1949-50:—

TABLE NO. 6 (4)
State Grants to Karnatak University (1949-55)

Year.	Grants.		Total.
	Recurring.	Non-recurring.	
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
1949-50	1,00,000
1950-51	3,50,000	4,00,000	7,50,000
1951-52	3,40,000	...	3,40,000
1952-53	3,40,000	1,65,000	5,05,000
1953-54	3,00,000	1,93,200	4,93,200
1954-55	3,40,000	6,36,800	9,76,800

V GUJARAT UNIVERSITY

6 (14). *The Establishment of the Gujarat University.*—The desire for the establishment of a separate university for Gujarat may be said to have been put forward for the first time in 1917 at the Bombay Presidency Education Conference. This proposal was endorsed by the Setalvad Committee in 1924 and a provision was even made in the Bombay University Act of 1928 to accord representation in the Senate of the University to the Vice-Chancellors of the other regional universities in

the State when they would be established. But, for some reason or the other, no immediate progress was made in this direction although facilities for higher education were being provided in an increasing measure in all parts of Gujarat. With the appointment of the Maharashtra University Committee in 1942, however, the desire for the establishment of a separate university for Gujarat received a fresh momentum. In 1943, the Gujarat Sahitya Parishad which met at Baroda adopted a resolution for the establishment of a separate university for Gujarat and, with a view to helping the Parishad in the implementation of this resolution, the Gujarat Vidya Sabha set up an organisation known, as the Gujarat University Mandal. This body consisted of more than 150 representatives from all parts of Gujarat. It adopted a resolution stating the fundamental principles on which the Gujarat University should be organised and carried on educative propaganda for the realisation of its objective. As a result of this demand, Government appointed a Committee under the Chairmanship of the late Shri G. V. Mavalankar to enquire into the problem of establishing a separate university for Gujarat and to make specific recommendations pertaining thereto. On receipt of the report of this Committee the Gujarat University Act was passed in November, 1949 and the Gujarat University began to function soon thereafter with Shri H. V. Divatia as the first Vice-Chancellor.

6 (15). *The Development of the Gujarat University (1949-55).*—The University campus comprises of more than 500 acres of land situated at a distance of about 3 miles to the west of the City of Ahmedabad. The colleges conducted by the Ahmedabad Education Society, the L. D. Engineering College conducted by Government and the Ahmedabad Textile Industries Research Association and the Physical Research Institute (along with hostels attached to them) are also situated on this campus. It is proposed to establish other institutions of learning and residential buildings on the campus and plans have been prepared for the purpose. It is hoped that this area will ultimately grow into a university town.

The foundation stone of the University building which has been designed to accommodate the administrative offices of the University and the University library was laid by the late Sardar Vallabhbhai Patel on 1st November, 1950. The building is estimated to cost Rs. 27 lakhs.

At present 34 colleges are affiliated to the University and 4 institutions are recognised as post-graduate institutions. The colleges are spread over Bombay Gujarat, Saurashtra and Kutch. Of these, as many as 19 colleges are situated in the Gujarat region of the State. They include 8 colleges of arts and science—(1) Gujarat College, Ahmedabad; (2) the M. N. College, Visnagar; (3) L. D. Arts and M. G. Science Institute, Ahmedabad; (4) V. P. Mahavidyalaya, Vallabhanagar; (5) M. T. B. College, Surat; (6) Petlad College, Petlad; (7) J. & J. College of Science and C. B. Patel Arts Institute, Nadiad; and (8) S. B. Garda College and B. P. Baria Science Institute, Navasari. Of these, two are conducted by Government and the rest, by private enterprise. The eleven colleges of Professional Education affiliated to the University include (1) L. D. College of Engineering, Ahmedabad, conducted by Government; (2) Birla V. Mahavidyalaya,

Vallabhnagar; (3) B. J. Medical College, Ahmedabad conducted by Government; (4) L. M. College of Pharmacy, Ahmedabad; (5) A. G. Teachers' College, Ahmedabad; (6) B. J. Vanijya Mahavidyalaya, Vallabha Vidyanagar; (7) Sarvajani Law College, Surat; (8) H. L. College of Commerce, Ahmedabad; (9) Sir K. P. College of Commerce, Surat; (10) Sir L. A. Shah Law College, Ahmedabad. Besides these, there are two Ayurvedic Medical Colleges at Surat and Nadiad. The University has recently created a Faculty of Ayurvedic Medicine and the courses in that Faculty are under preparation.

The work of the University is divided into eight Faculties, viz. (1) Arts including Education; (2) Science; (3) Technology including Engineering; (4) Agriculture; (5) Law; (6) Medicine; (7) Commerce and (8) Ayurvedic Medicine. The University has continued most of the courses which are instituted in its area by the University of Bombay, has revised some, and has, in addition, instituted several new degrees or diplomas which include Master of Pharmacy, Diploma in Pharmacy; Diploma in Journalism; Diploma in Labour Welfare and Diploma in Ophthalmology. The University has also instituted the system of external examinations on the arts side up to the B.A. degree.

The University has established two departments of post-graduate instruction, viz. the University School of Social Sciences and the University School Gujarati Language and Literature. It has also been decided to take under its control all post-graduate instruction in the University area with effect from June, 1956 and the necessary preparations for it are being made.

One of the important activities started by the University is the opening of a coaching class for the students appearing at the Union Public Service Commission Examinations and the results of the last two years are very encouraging.

The University has appointed a chief medical officer and under his supervision the medical examination of all the students who enter the University is held every year and the guardians are informed of the findings. A report about the health of the students is also published by the University.

The University publishes a Bulletin and a Journal—(*Vidya*). A Foreign Universities Information Bureau has been organised and a good beginning has been made for building up the University library which is now housed in the library block of the University building.

Like the Poona and Karnatak Universities, this University also has established a Board of Extramural Studies and is conducting extension activities among the rural population.

A unique feature of the Gujarat University Act is the provision under which the University is under an obligation to replace English by Gujarati and/or Hindi as the medium of instruction and examination within a period not exceeding ten years from the date of its incorporation. Such a provision has not been made either in the Poona University Act or in

the Karnatak University Act. The question of the medium of instruction has, therefore, been taken up in right earnest by this University, and it has been decided to introduce Gujarati as the medium of instruction and examination from June, 1955 in the First Year Arts, First Year Science, First Year Commerce and First Year Agricultural Classes and it is further proposed to introduce it in succeeding years in the higher classes till the degree stage is reached. Similarly, it has also been decided to introduce the study of Hindi as a compulsory subject in the first year classes from June, 1955 and its teaching on a compulsory basis will be extended to the higher classes by progressive stages.

The following table shows the grants paid by Government to the Gujarat University since 1949-50:—

TABLE No. 6 (5)
Grants to Gujarat University (1949-55)

Year.	Grant.		Total.
	Recurring.	Non-recurring.	
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
1949-50	50,000	...	50,000
1950-51	2,00,000	4,00,000	6,00,000
1951-52	3,40,000	...	3,40,000
1952-53	4,00,000	1,72,000	5,72,000
1953-54	4,00,000	...	4,00,000
1954-55	4,00,000	10,00,000	14,00,000

VI THE S. N. D. T. INDIAN WOMEN'S UNIVERSITY

6 (16). *The Establishment of the S. N. D. T. Indian Women's University.*—Shrimati Nathibai Damodar Thackersey Women's University is a unique institution. It is the only university in India which is exclusively meant for women. With the exception of the Usmania University, it is again the only university which gives education through a modern Indian language and it is also the only university in the management of which women themselves play a prominent part. It was established as early as in 1916 by Dr. D. K. Karve, the veteran worker for the cause of the education of women in Maharashtra, with Shri Ramkrishna G. Bhandarkar as Chancellor and Shri Raghunath Paranjape as Vice-Chancellor. It received its present name in 1920 when the late Shri Vithaldas Thackersey gave a donation of Rs. 15 lakhs to the University, subject to certain conditions among which one was that it should be named after his mother, Shrimati Nathibai Damodar Thackersey. The objects of the University, as originally constituted, were the following:—

(a) to make provision for the higher education of women through modern Indian languages (mother tongues) as the media of instruction;

(b) to regulate pre-university education, to start, aid, maintain and affiliate institutions for such education and to formulate courses of studies specially suited to the needs and requirements of women;

(c) to make provision for the training of teachers for primary and secondary schools;

(d) to institute and confer such degrees and grant diplomas, titles, certificates and marks of honour in respect of degrees and examinations, as may be prescribed by the regulations; and

(e) such other objects, not inconsistent with these as may be added from time to time by the Senate. The University made slow but steady progress between 1916 and 1937 partly because the idea was not then accepted by a large section of the intelligentsia, partly because it did not obtain recognition from Government and other universities, and partly because of financial stringency. But when the popular Ministry came to office, Government granted recognition to the degrees of the University under G. R., P. & S. D., No. 2735/34 of 10th December, 1938 (later modified by G. R., P. & S. D., No. 2735/34, dated 31st October, 1947) and the graduates of the University were admitted to Government and semi-Government services on the same terms as those holding the degrees of the University of Bombay. These orders improved the status of the University and raised it in public estimate. A further step was taken in 1947 when Government appointed a Committee under the Chairmanship of Shri H. V. Divetia to examine the problem of granting statutory recognition to the University. On receipt of its recommendations the S. N. D. T. Indian Women's University Act was passed in November, 1949. The various authorities were soon duly constituted under the Act and the Senate elected Shri K. M. Jhaveri as the first Vice-Chancellor on 17th February, 1951.

6 (17). *Development of the S. N. D. T. Indian Women's University (1949-55).*—The office of the University was first located in Poona and it was shifted to Bombay in 1936.

From the beginning, the University has been conducting and affiliating institutions for the education of women. At present, it conducts two colleges for women—one at Bombay and other at Poona. In addition, there are four affiliated colleges situated at Ahmedabad, Baroda, Surat and Bhavanagar. In 1952, the University started a nursing college in Bombay. It offers a three-year course leading to the Degree of B.Sc. (Nursing) and proposes to provide a specialised one-year course in certain special branches.* Besides, the University also conducts two Kanya Shalas—one at Bombay and the other at Poona and also gives a grant-in-aid of Rs. 5,000 per annum to the Vanita Vishram Girls' English High School at Bombay.† Formerly the University used to conduct its own Matriculation Examination. But now the practice has been discontinued and admission to the University is given to any girl student who has

* The medium of instruction on the Nursing side is English.

† The maintenance of these institutions has been made obligatory on the University under the terms of donation of Shri Vithaldas Thackersey.

passed the S. S. C. Examination in such subjects and with such standards of attainment as are prescribed by the statutes of the University.

The courses conducted by the University fall into three sections—Arts, Teaching and Nursing. On the Arts side, students are prepared for the B.A. and M.A. Degrees of the University (formerly known as G.A. and P.A.) which are equivalent to the B.A. and M.A. Degrees of the other statutory universities. On the Teaching side, the students are prepared for the B.T. and M.Ed. Degrees and on the Nursing side, as already stated, the students are prepared for the B.Sc. (Nursing) Degree. The duration of all these courses is of three years for the Graduates' Degree and of two years thereafter for the Masters' Degree. So far, the University has conferred the Graduates' Degree on 2,280 women, the Master's Degree on 220 women and the B.T. Degree on 503 women.

Recently the University has constructed an administrative building at a cost of about Rs. 9,33,000 of which the Government of Bombay contributed Rs. 4,50,000.

The University has also been able to strengthen its library in recent years with the help of a grant of Rs. 30,000 given by the University Grants Commission. It has also started the publication of text-books in modern Indian languages and it hopes to bring out annually at least one standard text-book for each subject in Marathi and Gujarati for the benefit of its students.

The following table shows the grant-in-aid given to the S. N. D. T. Indian Women's University by Government of Bombay since 1949-50:—

TABLE No. 6 (6)

Grants to S. N. D. T. Indian Women's University (1949-55)

Year.	Grants.		Total.
	Recurring.	Non-recurring.	
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
1949-50	7,500	1,00,000	1,07,500
1950-51	75,000	2,75,000	3,50,000
1951-52	60,000	—	60,000
1952-53	75,000	75,000	1,50,000
1953-54	1,15,000	—	1,15,000
1954-55	1,15,000	—	1,15,000

VII UNIVERSITIES—GENERAL

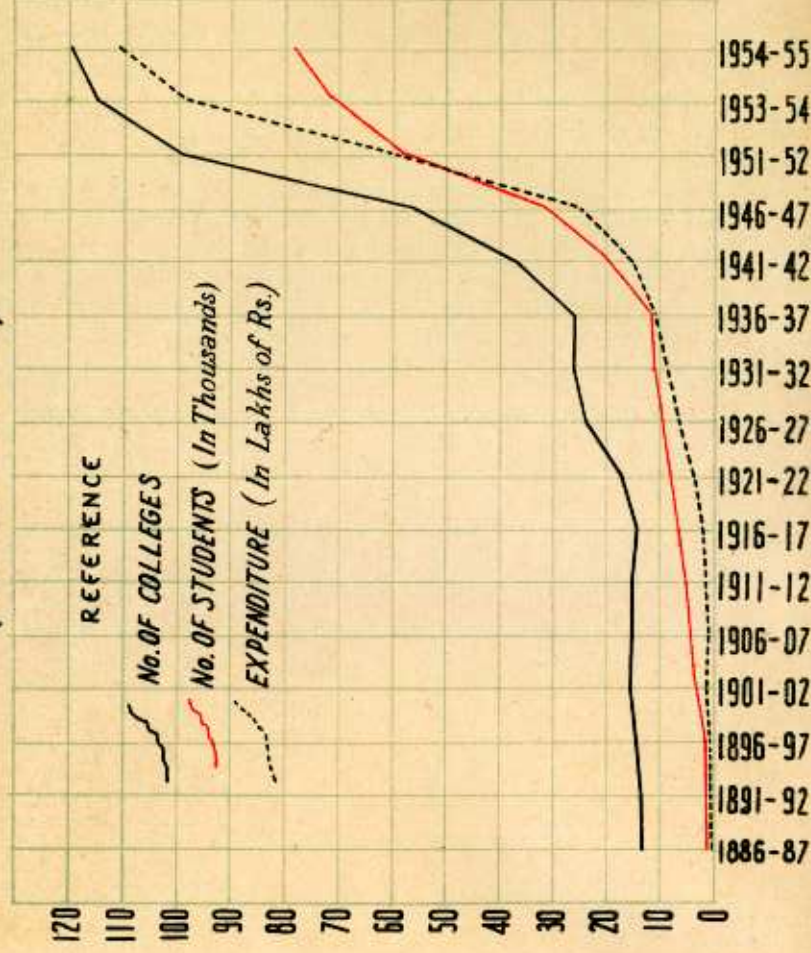
6 (18). *Some aspects of University Education.*—The expenditure on universities began in 1857 with the establishment of the University of Bombay. In the early years, the number of students who appeared for

the university examinations was small and hence the total income of the University from fees was extremely meagre. Government was, therefore, required to give some financial assistance to the University every year. By 1900, however, the picture had considerably altered. The number of students who appeared for the different examinations of the University had now considerably increased and as the administrative expenditure of the University had not increased in proportion, it was now possible for the University authorities to balance their budget without any assistance from the State treasury. In 1901-02, for example the total expenditure of the Bombay University came to Rs. 2,06,208 out of which 1,78,513 came from fees and Rs. 27,695 from other sources like endowments and donations.

With the passing of the Indian Universities Act of 1904, however, universities were required to assume teaching functions as well as to improve their administrative machinery. For this purpose, Government **began to** give recurring as well as non-recurring grants to the Bombay University. When other statutory universities were established in the State, liberal recurring and non-recurring grants had to be given to them also in order to enable them to discharge their responsibilities. Consequently, the total expenditure on universities, especially the grants-in-aid from State funds, has increased very considerably since 1947.

The following table shows the growth of expenditure of the universities in the State from 1901:

GROWTH OF UNIVERSITY EDUCATION (1886-1955)



G. P. P. POONA, 1956.

TABLE No. 6 (7)
Growth of University Education (1881-82 to 1954-55)

Year,	No. o. Colleges for			No. of Students in Colleges for			Total Direct Expenditure on Universities met from				
	General and Special Education.	Professional and Special Education.	Total.	General Education.	Professional and Special Education.	Total.	Central Government Funds.	State Funds.	Fees.	Other Sources.	Total.
1881-82	6	3	9	475	570	1,045	Rs. ...	Rs. 27,009	Rs. Other data not available.	Rs. 87,813	Rs. 87,813
1886-87	9	4	13	955	678	1,633	...	20,000	54,647	13,166	87,813
1891-92	9	4	13	1,332	495	1,827	...	15,000	85,217	17,355	1,17,572
1896-97	10	4	14	1,064	760	1,824	1,65,152	19,828	1,84,980
1901-02	10	5	15	1,941	1,064	3,005	1,78,513	27,695	2,06,208
1906-07	10	5	15	2,747	1,450	4,197	...	35,000	1,37,738	10,042	1,82,780
1911-12	11	4	15	3,719	1,239	4,958	...	10,000	1,58,616	39,002	2,07,618
1916-17	8	6	14	4,888	1,841	6,729	...	55,000	2,25,244	—47,778	2,32,466
1921-22	10	7	17	4,829	2,595	7,424	...	67,000	2,46,612	58,172	3,71,784
1926-27	14	10	24	6,984	2,437	9,421	...	67,772	5,71,700	68,500	7,07,972
1931-32	15	11	26	9,226	3,073	12,299	...	1,22,000	6,09,000	1,23,000	8,54,000
1936-37	14	12	26	9,864	3,347	13,211	...	1,17,000	11,61,156	...	12,78,156
1941-42	21	16	37	15,031	4,940	19,971	...	69,307	13,78,426	56,986	15,04,719
1946-47	32	24	56	24,449	7,862	32,311	...	1,50,000	23,41,819	...	24,91,819
1951-52	49	51	100	42,141	16,678	58,819	2,95,521	28,49,520	28,52,292	1,60,160	61,57,493
1953-54	53	62	115	49,137	22,858	71,995	3,34,293	34,26,898	44,90,776	16,35,066	98,87,033
1954-55	55	65	120	53,164	25,277	78,441	11,58,168	36,07,411	48,14,955	15,98,721	1,11,79,255

The sudden increase in the number of statutory universities since 1947 has created several problems which involve proper co-ordination of their activities. It is obvious that the teaching and the research facilities provided by the different universities in the State would have to be co-ordinated on right lines if the best results are to be obtained within the resources available. Government, therefore, appointed a committee under the Chairmanship of Shri N. L. Ahmad to examine this problem in details. The terms of reference to the Committee were the following:—

(1) to examine the lines on which the universities in the Bombay State have organised and developed their teaching departments since their establishment and how best to improve them, particularly with a view to securing the co-ordination of teaching and research facilities in the State;

(2) to examine whether there has been any, and if so, to what extent, overlapping and duplication in the work of the various universities and suggest ways and means to eliminate wastage and to secure a proper co-ordination of the educational effort in the academic field;

(3) to suggest the manner in which the staff of the Government colleges should be utilised for post-graduate and research work conducted by the universities concerned;

(4) to explore the possibility of placing the superior teaching and research staff employed in Government institutions under the academic control of the universities concerned with a view to the better and more efficient organisation of post-intermediate and research work; and

(5) to recommend whether any, and if so, what new departments under the Faculties of Arts, Science, Technology etc. should be established by the universities concerned without increasing to any appreciable extent the financial liability of Government and to suggest whether any, and if so which teaching and other departments need to be discontinued by some of the universities in cases in which such departments have not been established under the terms of Endowment or Trust Funds; and

(6) to suggest the basis and the upper limits of grants for the next three or five years.

The Committee made a detailed study of the present organisation of the universities from the above points of view and has made several important recommendations which are now under the consideration of Government.

VIII ARTS AND SCIENCE COLLEGES

6 (19). *The Development of Arts and Science Colleges.*—The lead in the establishment of the modern colleges of arts and science was naturally taken by Government which established the first institutions of this type in the State. The oldest college in the State is the *Elphinstone College*, Bombay, which began under the name of the *Elphinstone Native Institution* with the object of spreading a knowledge of Western science and literature among the people of India. This was later on

designated as the *Elphinstone College* and was affiliated to the University of Bombay in 1860. The *Hindu College*, Poona, which was established in 1821 for the study of Sanskrit literature, was also developed later on as a modern college of arts and science and became the *Deccan College*, Poona (affiliated to the University of Bombay in 1860). This was closed in 1934 on grounds of economy, but in 1939, it was revived as a post-graduate and research institute and its conduct was entrusted to a trust. A college for the Gujarati area was established at Ahmedabad and affiliated to the University in 1879 and a college for the Kannada area was established at Dharwar and affiliated to the University in 1917. The *Institute of Science*, formerly known as the *Royal Institute of Science*, was established in Bombay and affiliated to the University in 1926. The *Ismail Yusuf College* at Andheri was established with the object of catering to the special needs of Muslim students and affiliated to the University in 1930. With the exception of this institution, therefore, the policy of the Government has been to establish one arts and Science college in Bombay City and in each of the three linguistic regions of the State. These five institutions, therefore, were the only arts and science colleges conducted by Government in the State proper until 1949. In that year, however, the merger of the Indian States added two more institutions to this list, viz., the *M. N. College* at Visnagar and the *Rajaram College* at Kolhapur. Thus Government conducts only seven colleges of arts and science at present.

The missionaries followed in the foot steps of Government and established two colleges of arts and science in Bombay, viz., the *Wilson College* which was affiliated to the University in 1861 and the *St. Xavier's College* which was affiliated in 1869. For a long, time, these two colleges were the only institutions conducted by missionaries in this field. But in 1941 the *Sophia College for Women* was established in Bombay City and in 1947, another college was established at Ahmednagar. Missionaries, therefore, conduct only four colleges of arts and science in the State at present.

The bulk of the colleges of arts and science, i.e. 44 out of 55 are at present conducted by private Indian enterprise. It must be remembered, however, that there was no college under Indian management till 1880 and that private Indian enterprise in the field of Collegiate Education was very slow to develop. The main difficulties that hindered its progress were (a) inadequate financial resources which made it difficult to provide the heavy non-recurring expenditure required for the establishment of a college; (b) lack of personnel; (c) the Departmental view that first rate colleges can only be conducted under European principals; (d) uncertain and inadequate character of the grant-in-aid from the State; and (e) Departmental competition in the sense that the only places where colleges could have been successfully established i.e., Cities like Bombay, Poona, Ahmedabad or Kolhapur were already provided with Government institutions so that private enterprise had to establish a college either in a big city where a severe competition from an older Government college was to be faced or in a smaller town where it would have been next to impossible to attract a sufficient number of students

The Fergusson College, Poona, conducted by the Deccan Education Society was the first college to be established in this State under a purely Indian management. Even as early as in 1892, Sir Raymond West, the Vice-Chancellor of the Bombay University spoke of it as "the most completely developed and perhaps the only fully developed college under purely native management in India."* It would, therefore, be quite in order to quote the following account about its origin which appears in the Departmental Report for 1885-86:—

"The Fergusson College owes its origin to the growth of the New English School which was founded in 1880 by the late Mr. V. K. Chiplunkar, the son of a learned and valued officer of the Educational Department, Messrs. B. G. Tilak and N. B. Namjoshi were from the first associated with Mr. Chiplunkar in his attempt to *cheapen and extend* education and they were afterwards joined by Mr. V. S. Apte and four other graduates who desired to devote their lives to the work. The success of the New English School led the Managers to take a further step forward, and in October, 1884, they called a meeting of gentlemen who were known to sympathise with private enterprise in education. This meeting formed itself into the Deccan Education Societies' and placed itself under a Council consisting of seven new members and of seven surviving promoters of the original schools. Sir William Wedderburn, Bart., was elected Chairman and Dr. Bhandarkar, Vice-Chairman of the Council; His Highness the Maharaja and His Highness the Regent of Kolhapur became President and Vice-President of the Society. The Council soon resolved to establish a College and to call it the 'Fergusson College' so as to mark their appreciation of the interest which His Excellency the Governor took in the cause of private enterprise generally and in the prosperity of their school in particular. The College was recognised by the University in the Faculty of Arts for the purpose of the Previous Examination in December, 1884, and has received large support both from Government and from the public. The sums subscribed upto the date for permanent endowment of the College and for the establishment of scholarships amount to Rs. 84,000 and Government has promised a handsome contribution for the erection of a suitable building, the cornerstone of which was laid by His Excellency the Right Honourable Sir James Fergusson on the 5th November, 1885."†

Early in the present century, however, the Department began to abandon the old convention that arts and science colleges could be established only under European principals. Several Indian students now began to go to England and obtain degrees at English universities; and not infrequently they held their own in competition with English students. When such persons began to be available for service as principals and professors, it was no longer possible to argue that Indians were not adequately equipped to become principals of colleges. Hence the earlier emphasis on European principals was given up; and this

change in outlook, combined with the increasing support from public charity, led to the great expansion of private Indian enterprise at the collegiate level.

Probably the most significant event which contributed to this change of outlook occurred a little earlier in 1899 when Shri (now Sir) Raghunath Paranjpe was bracketed as Senior Wrangler of the year at Cambridge. This unique success was not merely a personal triumph; it was welcomed throughout the country as a national victory and as a proof of the view that Indians were in no way intellectually inferior to Englishmen. The Director of Education mentioned this event in his Annual Report for 1898-99 and observed that "an achievement so remarkable could not but be a great encouragement to both the teachers and students of the Fergusson College." Even Lord Curzon sent a telegram to the college and congratulated it upon the "brilliant success of a former pupil in carrying off the Blue Riband of English Scholarship" and observed that "such a triumph was a wonderful tribute both to the teaching of the college and to the capabilities of the most highly trained Indian intellect." At that time there were hardly any Indians in the I.E.S., and the then Director of Education, Mr. E. Giles, informed Shri Gopal Krishna Gokhale that Government would be glad to appoint Shri Raghunath Paranjpe to the I.E.S. The life members of the Deccan Education Society also expressed their willingness to release him from the pledge of service to the Society. But Shri Raghunath Paranjpe remained loyal to his college and joined as the Principal of the Fergusson College in January, 1902. This courage and sacrifice focussed the attention of the whole of India on the Fergusson College and the old theory that the Indians were not worthy to be principals of colleges was buried for ever.

Colleges of arts and science began, therefore, to increase after 1901 and especially after 1921. This will be clearly seen from the following table which shows the number of arts and science colleges in the State, their enrolment, and their total expenditure by sources:—

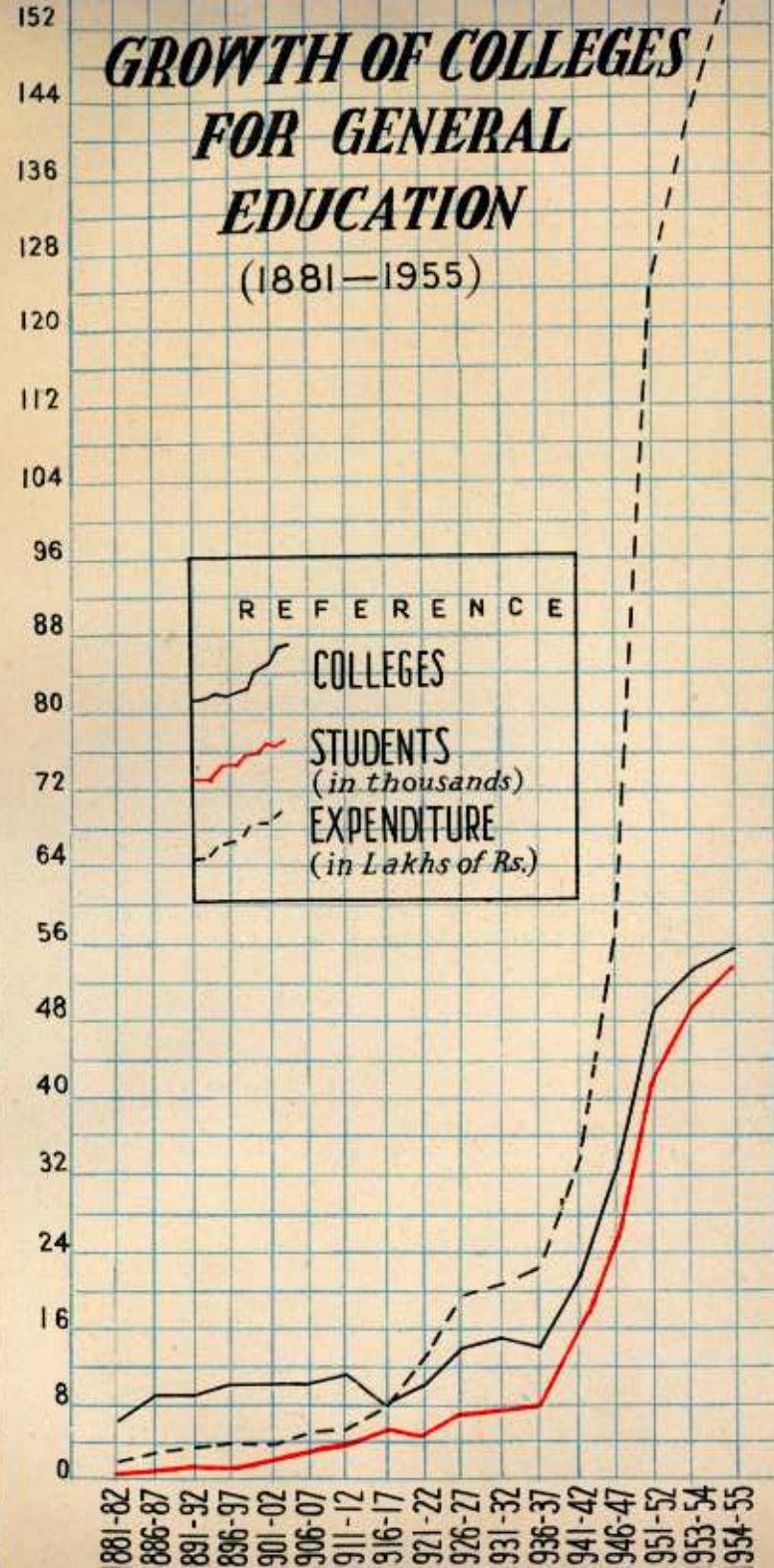
* Translations of the Ninth International Congress of Orientalists (London, 1893), p. 62.

† P. 20.

TABLE No. 6 (8)
Growth of Colleges for General Education (1881-82 to 1954-55)

Year.	No. of Colleges.	No. of Students.			Expenditure from					Total.
		Boys.	Girls.	Total.	State Funds.	Local Funds.	Fees.	Other Sources.		
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	
					Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	
1881-82	6	Not available		475	90,567	3,000	34,845	56,415	1,84,827	
1886-87	9	Not available		955	1,20,895	4,494	57,698	66,247	2,49,334	
1891-92	9	1,331	1	1,332	1,37,353	13,524	87,281	76,142	3,14,300	
1896-97	10	1,046	18	1,064	1,66,598	16,675	98,009	88,252	3,69,534	
1901-02	10	1,911	30	1,941	1,28,906	14,625	1,32,561	76,732	3,52,824	
1906-07	10	2,690	57	2,747	1,49,038	14,300	1,79,137	1,24,127	4,66,602	
1911-12	11	3,643	76	3,719	1,46,911	24,249	2,48,585	1,14,588	5,34,333	
1916-17	8	4,763	125	4,888	2,93,828	19,150	3,94,549	68,189	7,75,716	
1921-22	10	4,650	179	4,829	5,21,023	16,225	4,52,379	2,59,507	12,49,134	
1926-27	14	6,604	380	6,984	5,75,289	21,875	9,01,398	4,19,355	19,17,917	
1931-32	15	8,528	698	9,226	4,90,066	14,715	12,86,556	2,49,968	20,41,305	
1936-37	14	8,816	1,048	9,864	4,44,743	250	14,60,804	3,23,340	22,29,137	
1941-42	21	12,304	2,727	15,031	5,87,628	1,050	21,95,715	3,35,305	31,19,698	
1946-47	32	19,833	4,616	24,449	7,60,789	1,500	41,72,799	7,76,030	57,11,118	
1951-52	49	34,244	7,897	42,141	20,91,142	15,272	89,76,108	12,70,288	1,23,52,810	
1953-54	53	39,871	9,266	49,137	20,05,779	15,100	1,04,02,555	16,47,998	1,40,84,217*	
1954-55	55	42,691	10,473	53,164	24,80,177	16,500	1,11,71,073	17,51,328	1,54,19,078	

* This includes a sum of Rs. 12,785 from Central Government Funds as well.



It will be seen from the above table that there were six colleges of arts and science in the State proper in 1881-82 and that their number had increased only to 10 in 1921-22. Even in 1936-37, the number of colleges of arts and science had increased to 14 only. Owing to the great public awakening created by the assumption of office by the Popular Ministry and the attainment of Independence, however, there was a great expansion of Collegiate Education during the next 20 years and the number of colleges of arts and science increased to 55 (with an enrolment of 53,164 students) in 1954-55.

In the early years of the nineteenth century when the Elphinstone Institution was established in Bombay, it was believed that this single institution would be able to meet the requirements of the State as a whole. Later on, it was believed that one college of arts and science would be able to meet the needs of each region. At present even this theory has outlived its utility and colleges have now been established in every district and in almost every city with a population of more than 30,000.

6 (20). *Grants-in-aid to non-Government Arts and Science, Commerce and Secondary Training Colleges.*—As stated earlier in Chapter V, the system of payment by results was adopted in this State when the system of grants-in-aid to educational institutions was first instituted. Accordingly, the first grants to colleges were also based on results. The Indian Education Commission, however, recommended that this system was unsuitable for the collegiate stage of education and that “the rate of aid to each college be determined by the strength of the staff, the expenditure on its maintenance, the efficiency of the institution and the wants of the locality; and that provision be made for special grants to aided colleges whenever necessary, for the supply and renewal of buildings, furniture, libraries, and other apparatus of instruction.”* This recommendation was accepted by Government and revised rules of grants-in-aid to colleges were issued in 1886 under which a system of block grants was introduced and provision was also made for the sanction of non-recurring grants. In actual practice, however, the grants-in-aid to colleges were never substantial; and the non-Government colleges had to depend mainly on fees and donations for their support. This financial handicap, as we have seen, was partly responsible for the slow expansion of private enterprise in Collegiate Education.

With the coming into office of the Popular Ministry in 1936-37, however, the situation changed very radically. The expansion of Secondary Education which had taken place in the early years of the century began to bear fruit during this period and the enrolment of students at the collegiate stage increased very rapidly. The boom created by the economic conditions during the Second World War stimulated private charity to a considerable extent. The Popular Ministry also revised the old system of grants-in-aid to colleges and began to award larger and more substantial grants in proportion to the expenditure incurred. Consequently, the funds available for higher education increased very substantially

* Report p. 305.

after 1936-37, and especially after 1946-47, with the result that the number of arts and science colleges in the State increased from 14 (with an enrolment of 9,864 students) in 1936-37 to 32 (with an enrolment of 24,449 students) in 1946-47 and to 55 (with an enrolment of 53,164 students) in 1954-55.

Until recently, these grants to colleges were fixed on an *ad-hoc* basis. The whole question of framing suitable rules for assessing the grants admissible to non-Government colleges was under consideration. Pending the finalisation of suitable rules, block grants were sanctioned to non-Government colleges for the three-year period from 1949-50 to 1951-52, with the proviso that the grant-in-aid to be paid in the second and subsequent year would be reduced by the amount of net saving which the colleges might have in the preceding years. From the year 1952-53, the maintenance grants to non-Government colleges were fixed in accordance with rules framed for the purpose. These rules were revised under Government Resolution, Education Department, No. NGC 1253 of 28th July, 1955. Under these rules, the grant-in-aid is related to the actual admissible expenditure of the institution each year as in the case of secondary schools.

According to the revised rules now in force, subject to certain limits in regard to the net saving or deficit as revealed by their accounts, maintenance grants are paid to non-Government arts and science, commerce and secondary training colleges at the rate of 10, 15 or 20 per cent. of their approved expenditure during the previous year, according to the category in which they are placed. The different colleges have been classified in three categories according to their location and standing. The older and well-established colleges in the bigger cities generally are in the 10 per cent. category and the newer colleges are in the 15 or 20 per cent. category in accordance with their standing and location. There is also provision for the payment of dearness allowance grants towards expenditure on dearness allowance, if paid at Government rates. These grants are assessed simultaneously with the maintenance grants and subject to certain limits (of saving or deficit) common to the maintenance grants, are paid at 33 1/3 per cent. of the expenditure on dearness allowance during the preceding year. There is provision in the revised rules for the payment of non-recurring building grants, subject to funds being available. Further, Government have also introduced a scheme for advancing loans at an agreed rate of interest to non-Government arts and science, commerce and S. T. colleges for the construction of buildings etc. It will thus be seen that at present grants are paid to non-Government colleges on a definite basis and at a more generous rate than before.

IX PROFESSIONAL COLLEGES

6 (21). *The Development of Professional Colleges.*—The establishment and maintenance of professional colleges is much costlier than that of the colleges of arts and science. It is not surprising, therefore, that private enterprise should be slow to enter this field and that the oldest professional colleges in this field should be established and maintained by

Government. Even as late as in 1921-22, there were 7 colleges for Professional Education in the State and all of them were conducted by Government. These included the Government Law College, Bombay; the Grant Medical College, Bombay; the College of Engineering, Poona; the College of Agriculture, Poona; the Sydenham College of Commerce and Economics, Bombay; the Secondary Training College, Bombay and the Forest College for the Training of Rangers, Dharwar.

After 1921, the local bodies and private enterprise began to enter the field. The Bombay Municipality which has done such great service to Medical Education in the State established the G. S. Medical College, Bombay, and affiliated it to the University in 1925. Private Indian enterprise was responsible for the establishment, during this period, of the H. L. College of Commerce at Ahmedabad and for the establishment of non-Government Law Colleges at Poona, Ahmedabad and Karachi. The more progressive Indian States also entered the field during this period and colleges for Law and Teacher-training were established at Kolhapur and for Commerce and Teacher-training at Baroda. The period between 1921 and 1937 is, therefore, remarkable for a fairly large expansion of Professional Education at the collegiate level and for the entry of non-Government agencies in the field.

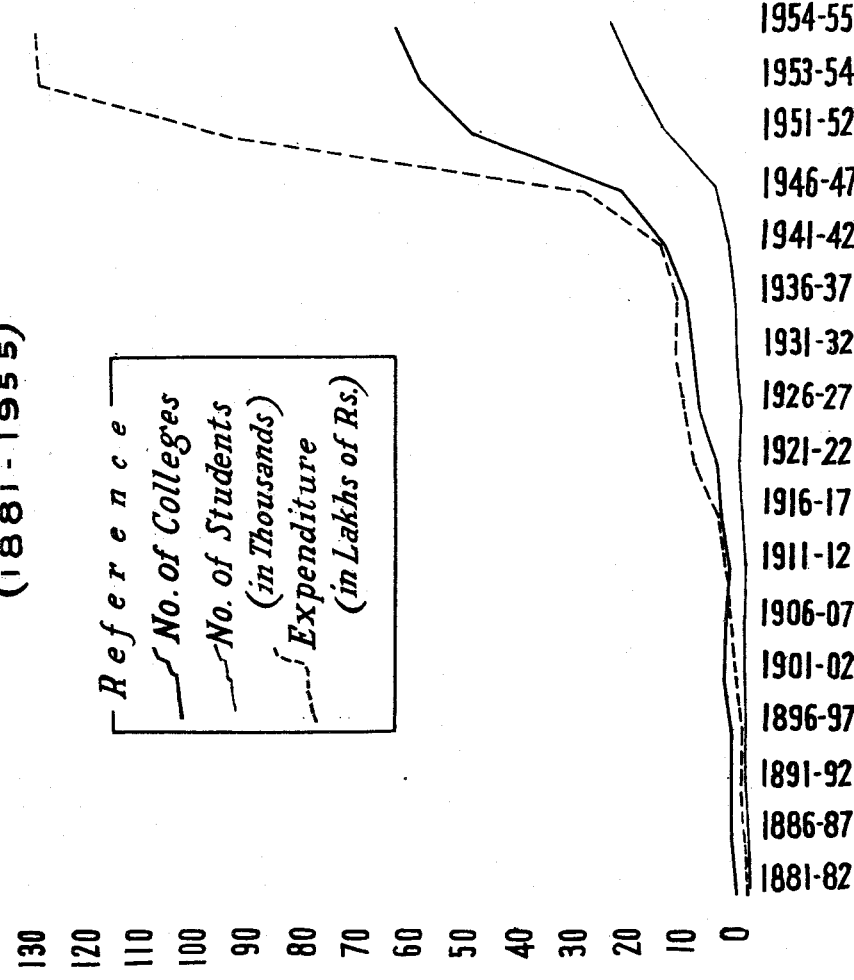
After the assumption of office by the Popular Ministry in 1937, the progress of professional colleges was far more rapid than that during any other earlier period. The nationalist view had always been that Professional Education was sadly neglected under the British administration and consequently professional colleges began to receive great emphasis at the hands of the State Government after 1937. Large financial assistance also began to be available for the purpose from the funds of the Central Government after the attainment of Independence. The establishment of the regional universities in the State helped this trend still further because some of them have since established colleges for Professional Education. As a result of all these forces, the number of professional colleges in the State has increased from 12 (with an enrolment of 3,347 students) in 1936-37 to 65 (with an enrolment of 25,277 students) in 1954-55.

The following table shows the growth of professional colleges in the State between 1881-82 and 1954-55:

TABLE No. 6 (9)
Growth of Colleges for professional Education (1881-82 to 1954-55)

Year.	No. of Colleges.	No. of Students.				Expenditure from						Total
		Boys.	Girls.	Total.	Central Government Funds.	State Funds.	Local Funds.	Fees.	Other Sources.			
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11		
					Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.		
1881-82	3	Not available		570	...	62,541	...	24,017	2,028	88,586		
1886-87	4	Not available		678	...	51,119	...	38,878	3,795	93,792		
1891-92	4	487	8	495	...	70,361	...	41,276	4,626	1,16,263		
1896-97	4	740	20	760	...	37,864	...	57,462	5,267	1,00,593		
1901-02	5	1,019	45	1,064	...	66,900	...	1,10,496	5,312	1,82,708		
1906-07	5	1,411	39	1,450	...	2,15,201	...	56,171	5,929	2,77,301		
1911-12	4	1,210	29	1,239	...	2,70,100	250	1,42,195	6,567	4,19,112		
1916-17	6	1,789	52	1,841	...	3,45,699	...	2,36,846	4,801	5,87,346		
1921-22	7	2,516	79	2,595	...	6,49,430	...	3,41,883	22,912	10,14,225		
1926-27	10	2,420	67	2,487	...	6,17,609	1,76,816	3,54,107	78,277	12,26,809		
1931-32	11	2,962	111	3,073	...	6,32,159	1,60,501	4,65,197	76,814	13,34,671		
1936-37	12	3,161	186	3,347	...	4,39,570	1,48,977	5,91,231	1,87,234	13,67,012		
1941-42	16	4,642	298	4,940	...	3,48,544	1,55,267	8,90,893	2,31,545	16,26,249		
1946-47	24	7,301	561	7,862	...	9,66,137	2,09,931	15,49,001	4,06,618	31,31,687		
1951-52	51	15,619	1,059	16,678	4,28,871	41,29,192	2,32,808	37,59,511	15,18,226	1,00,68,608		
1953-54	62	21,062	1,796	22,858	10,50,393	48,11,586	3,94,809	46,81,382	20,65,477	1,30,03,647		
1954-55	65	23,232	2,045	25,277	5,41,365	20,21,583	4,15,762	51,49,646	20,63,102	1,31,91,458		

GROWTH OF COLLEGES FOR PROFESSIONAL EDUCATION (1881-1955)



The Sixty-five colleges for Professional Education which were conducted in the State on the 31st March, 1955 can be classified as follows:—

1. Colleges of Education	10
2. Engineering Colleges	8
3. Colleges of Medicine	15
4. Veterinary Colleges	1
5. Agricultural Colleges	3
6. Colleges of Commerce	11
7. Law Colleges	7
8. Colleges of applied Arts and Architec- ture.			1
9. Other Colleges	9

Total	...	65
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Of these, the Colleges of Education have been dealt with partly in Chapter IV under "Basic Education" and partly in Chapter VII under "The Training of Teachers". The remaining colleges will be described in detail in Chapter VIII which deals with Professional Education.

X POST-GRADUATE INSTITUTIONS FOR RESEARCH

6 (22). *Post-graduate Institutions for Research.*—Several institutions have been established in this State with the object of developing research in various branches of knowledge. They function mostly at the post-graduate level and several of them have been recognised by the statutory universities of the State as "recognised" or "constituent" institutions. They now form a very important group of institutions for higher learning in the State and some of them have carried out such good work that they have attained an all-India character and eminence.

There was no definite system of grants-in-aid to such institutions in the past. Each institution was considered on its merits and *ad hoc* grants were sanctioned. On the whole, however, the amount of grant-in-aid given was generally meagre. Recently, the Popular Ministry has framed special rules for giving grants-in-aid to research and cultural institutions. The recurring grants are usually awarded on the basis of approved expenditure subject to an upper limit of 25 per cent. The rules also provide for the payment of non-recurring grants although it has not yet been possible, on account of financial stringency, to sanction adequate financial assistance for this purpose.

The following table shows the amount of grant-in-aid sanctioned for research and cultural institutions since 1949:—

TABLE NO. 6 (10)

Grants-in-aid to Research and Cultural Institutions (1949-55)

Year.		Amount of grand-in-aid.	
		Rs.	
1949-50	1,57,230
1950-51	1,51,352
1951-52	1,22,920
1952-53	1,49,635
1953-54	1,29,554
1954-55	1,63,485

A large number of the research and cultural institutions are devoted to Oriental Studies, and their account will be given later in Chapter XV. A brief notice of some of the other institutions aided by Government is given below:

(a) *Tata Institute of Fundamental Research*.—This institution has an international status and is devoted to advance study and research in various subjects comprised under the general head "Atomic Science." It has carried out very important researches in Theoretical Physics, Experimental Physics with special reference to the study of cosmic radiation and Nuclear Physics. This famous institution is managed by the Tata Charities and is largely assisted by the Government of India. At present the State Government gives an annual grant of Rs. 50,000 to this institution.

(b) *Tata Institute of Social Sciences*.—The Tata Institute of Social Sciences was founded in the year 1936 by the Sir Dorabji Tata Trust as a pioneer attempt to meet the pressing need for Professional Education in the field of social work. Recently, the Institute has been provided with spacious buildings at Chembur, Bombay. It is primarily a professional school for social work. It provides a two years' course in social work at the end of which a Diploma in Social Service Administration is awarded to successful candidates. The Institute has been doing very good work in its field and has earned an all-India status.

(c) *Gujarat Vidya Sabha*.—The Vidya Sabha formerly known as the Gujarat Vernacular Society, was founded in 1848 for the promotion of knowledge and culture in Gujarat and for the progress of Gujarati language and literature. To fulfil these objectives, it has been maintaining trust funds (which now number 209), publishing books, running a monthly magazine and conducting a *Pathashala*. Since 1938-39, it is conducting the Sheth B. J. Institute which is at present affiliated to the Gujarat University and provides instruction and conducts research in Sanskrit,

Ancient Indian Culture, Arabic, Persian and Gujarati. It has also undertaken the project of preparing an authentic text of *Bhagavata* on the same lines as those on which the work of *Maha Bharata* and *Ramayana*, is being done elsewhere.

(d) *Gokhale Institute of Politics and Economics, Poona*.—The Institute was founded at Poona in 1930 with the object of organising systematic studies and investigations in the political and economic problems of India and of training workers for such research. It has always been a recognised centre of university work in Economics and since the establishment of the University of Poona, the staff of the Institute participates in the teaching programme for post-intermediate and post-graduate students of the University of Poona and guides research students of the University Department of Economics. The main interest of the Institute, however, is centred in the conduct of studies and research projects and the publication of their results.

The most important work of the Institute has been done in the field of agricultural economic surveys and urban socio-economic surveys. In this connection, mention may be made of its Survey of Farm Business in Wai Taluka, National Sample Surveys in 12 districts of the Bombay State, Rural Credit Surveys in seven districts of Bombay and Hyderabad, and Socio-Economic Surveys of Poona, Sholapur, and Kolhapur. In addition, the Institute has carried out several other surveys on requests made by different State Governments and other authorities.

The Institute has also set up, with the help of the Rockefeller Foundation, a Section in Demography and Population Studies. Fertility surveys have been carried out by this Section in Poona, Nasik, Kolaba and North Satara Districts and reports on these have been published. Recently, the Ministry of Health, Government of India, has sanctioned a grant to the Institute for extending the studies in Demography and for the conduct of nutrition surveys. It has also started a training programme aimed at imparting training and instruction in social science research methods.

During the last 25 years the Institute has done work of such a high order that it has become one of the most important institutions in the whole of India in the field of economic and political research and has also been recognised in the international field.

(e) *Bharat Itihas Sanshodhak Mandal, Poona*.—The Mandal was founded in 1910 with the object of fostering research in Indian history. It has so far collected and conserved over 10 lakhs of historical documents, over 18,000 manuscripts, about 5,000 coins, over 1,000 paintings, and about 800 other objects of historical importance. It maintains a good library which contains more than 10,000 volumes. It has so far published 94 works containing valuable historical material and conducts a quarterly journal which has run into 34 volumes. This institution is a very important centre for research in Indian history in general and Maratha history in particular.

(f) *Gujarat Research Society*.—The Society was founded in 1937 with the object of promoting, organising and co-ordinating research in all branches of knowledge with special reference to Maha-Gujarat. The

Society has conducted studies in the problems of health and nutrition in several localities and collected a good deal of reliable data. Intelligence tests of Gujarati children have been carried out and further work on testing the physical efficiency, general intelligence etc. of Gujarati and other children has been planned. Popular science leaflets were prepared by the Society and more than 30,000 copies have been distributed free through women's organisations. The Society has prepared a simple glossary of scientific terms in Gujarati. It also conducts a journal in which articles of original research are published.

Among the other institutions assisted at this level, mention may be made of (1) the Maharashtra Association for the Cultivation of Science, Poona, which specialises in Botany, Plant Pathology and Micro-biology; (2) Anthropological Society of Bombay; (3) the Indian Institute of Education, Bombay; (4) the Govindrao Korgaonkar Institute of Rural Education, Gargoti; (5) the Islamic Research Association, Bombay; (6) Mumbai Marathi Grantha Sangrahalaya, Bombay; (7) Anjuman-I-Islam Urdu Research Institute, Bombay; (8) the Kannada Research Institute, Dharwar and (9) Physical Research Laboratory, Ahmedabad.

XI FEES AND SCHOLARSHIPS

6 (23). *Financial Assistance to Poor and Deserving Students*.—From the statistics of the expenditure on colleges given earlier, it will be seen that these institutions depend very largely on fees for their maintenance. As the cost of education has risen very greatly during the last hundred years, especially after the two World Wars, the rates of fees in colleges have also gone up in proportion and it has become increasingly difficult for poor students to avail themselves of higher education.

In the early days when modern education was first introduced in the State, the ancient Indian tradition that all higher education should be free, still held the field. In the collegiate institutions of the Bombay Native Education Society, therefore, no fees were charged to the students and provision was also made for the grant of stipends or scholarships to almost every student. Even the public raised funds and handed them over to Government with a request that the interest therefrom should be utilised for grant of scholarships to poor and deserving students reading in colleges. The Board of Education changed this policy to some extent. On the one hand, it began to charge fees in its collegiate institutions; and on the other, it reduced the amount of stipends paid to the students. But until 1855, the total number of students reading in colleges was so small and the provision of stipends and scholarships was proportionately so large that most of the students reading at the collegiate stage obtained some financial assistance, however, small. Besides, the rates of fees levied were very low and poor students desiring to avail themselves of higher education were not seriously inconvenienced.

This position changed to a considerable extent between 1855 and 1915. The Educational Despatch of 1854 laid stress on the levy of fees in educational institutions and the number of scholarships available in colleges was, therefore, restricted very considerably after 1855. On the other hand, the total number of students seeking admission to colleges increased very greatly, during this period. Financial concessions in the form of

scholarships or remission of fees, either in whole or in part, could now be given only to a small percentage of students reading at the collegiate stage and this percentage became continually smaller as the total enrolment in colleges began to rise. As time passed on, it became increasingly difficult for poor students to receive higher education. The only redeeming feature of the situation, therefore, was that private charity came to the help of poor students at this critical period. A large number of organizations were formed by the public with the object of giving scholarships to students receiving higher education. Some of these were general and open to students of all castes and communities while others were restricted on local or communal basis. But the total financial assistance made available to poor students through all these sources was certainly very large and it played an important part in the development of higher education in the State during this period.

On account of the First World War the cost of living increased very greatly and in order to meet the increasing expenditure of collegiate institutions, the rates of fees charged in them were considerably raised. Poor students began, therefore, to feel great hardship at the collegiate stage. Between 1921 and 1937, therefore, Government instituted a large number of free-studentships and scholarships for the intermediate (including Muslims) and backward classes. No such provision was made for the advanced classes partly on the ground that higher education had spread very largely among them and partly because private charity had made a good deal of provision for the students belonging to these communities. It was, therefore, felt that the assistance of Government was required only by the intermediate and backward sections of the community. It is also worthy of note that these classes themselves organised private charity to some extent and supplemented the financial assistance which Government had made available to their students. On the whole, therefore, it may be said that during this period, fairly satisfactory financial assistance was available to poor students reading at the collegiate stage, partly from Government and partly from private sources.

During the Second World War, there was another steep rise in the cost of living and the fees of collegiate institutions had to be increased still further. The need of providing for poor students reading at this stage, therefore, increased very considerably and in order to meet the situation, Government adopted a number of measures. In the first place, the number of free-studentships and scholarships in Government colleges was increased to some extent. Secondly, Government decided that the communal basis of financial assistance to poor students should be done away with, in the larger interests of the country. Consequently, scholarships and free-studentships were now awarded on merit and on a regional basis (that is to say, preference was given to students from rural or backward areas) and not on a communal basis as in the past. Thirdly, a large number of additional merit scholarships and loan scholarships were sanctioned. During 1954-55, for example, the total number of merit scholarships awarded at the collegiate stage came to 255 and a total expenditure of Rs. 2,32,240 was incurred on them. Similarly a total number of 164 loan scholarships was also sanctioned at this stage and the question

of making payment is under consideration. Fourthly, very large concessions were given to displaced students reading at the collegiate stage. Fifthly, the Government of India instituted a very liberal scheme of scholarships to students of the backward communities reading at the collegiate stage and this was also supplemented by scholarships provided by the State Government from its own funds. On the whole, therefore, it may be said that the provision for financial assistance to poor and deserving students reading at the collegiate stage has been greatly increased since 1937 and especially after 1947.

6 (24). *Conclusion.*—It will be seen from the foregoing review that higher education has made considerable progress in this State during the last hundred years. In 1855, when the Department of Education was created, there was no university in the State; there were only 2 colleges of arts and science at Bombay and Poona respectively; and only a humble beginning had been made in Professional Education by the establishment of the Grant Medical College in Bombay; the opening of the Engineering Class and Mechanical School at Poona and by the establishment of a Chair of Jurisprudence in Bombay. Two years later, the University of Bombay was established. It held the first Matriculation Examination in 1859 and in 1860, four colleges were affiliated to it for the first time. During the last 100 years, the total number of universities in the State has increased from one to six and the establishment of the seventh University at Vallabh Vidya Nagar, Anand, is under contemplation. The number of colleges has increased from 5 in 1855 (2 colleges for general Education and 3 for professional education) to 120 in 1954-55 (55 colleges for General Education and 65 colleges for Professional Education). The students reading at the collegiate stage numbered only a few hundred in 1855, while in 1955, their strength has increased to 78,441 of which 53,164 were in colleges for General Education and 25,277 were in colleges of Professional Education. Similarly, the total expenditure on Collegiate Education was less than a lakh of rupees in 1855; but in 1955, the total expenditure on higher education was of the order of Rs. 400 lakhs. And it is worthy of note that in spite of the rapid expansion that has taken place in recent years, educational institutions in this State have been able to maintain a fairly higher standard of scholarship in all fields of higher education.

CHAPTER VII

TRAINING OF TEACHERS

7 (1). This Chapter is divided into four sections:

- A: Training of Secondary Teachers;
- B: Training of Primary Teachers (Men);
- C: Training of Primary Teachers (Women); and
- D: Training of Other Teachers.

7 (2). *Training of Secondary Teachers (1824-29).*—The first English school for Indian children was opened in Bombay City in 1818. But English education was rather slow to develop and even in 1840 when the Board of Education assumed office, there were only four English schools

in the State—at Bombay, Poona, Thana and Panvel. The need of taking any practical measures for the training of secondary teachers did not therefore, arise at this time. The Board of Education, however, stressed the importance of English education and increased the number of secondary schools rapidly. Hence in 1848 one comes across the first plan to train secondary teachers by establishing “normal departments” to train schoolmasters that would take the place of those who would otherwise have to be imported from England at great expense.* No action was, however, taken on this proposal till the dissolution of the Board in 1855.

Soon after the creation of the Education Department, it appeared that the problem would be taken up in right earnest. As early as in 1856-57, Howard proposed the establishment of a regular training college in Bombay for the professional preparation of assistant masters of English Schools.† But owing to the political disturbances of 1857 which necessitated retrenchment, the proposal was dropped. About 1861, Howard went to England for a short visit and from the enquiries made there, he concluded that good “general education” was of far greater significance than “professional training.” He, therefore, changed his views and dropped all ideas of training the teachers of English schools. In 1862-63, he reported that the normal colleges in Bombay, “do not, except in very rare cases, supply English teachers to the Department and consequently our English teachers, as a class, have had no special professional training... I do not very much regret the absence of technical instruction in the art of school-keeping. Much of what is taught under that head seems to me of questionable benefit. At all events, I am sure that its value is exaggerated by most educational writers in comparison with good general culture. For instance, I feel sure that there could be no comparison, even in a purely scholastic view, between the benefit to a young man of a thorough study of Mathematical Physics, and that of two years’ course of Pedagogy.”‡

The same views were also held by Sir Alexander Grant who declared that the University was “the great normal school for Assistant High School Masters.”§ What he meant was that a university graduate receives so good a general education that he needs no further professional training to become a competent teacher. This view dominated the Departmental policy till the end of the nineteenth century§ and no steps

* Report of the Board of Education, 1848.

† Report of the Director of Public Instruction, Bombay, 1856-57, Paras. 44 and 45. In so far as head masters are concerned, Howard was of opinion that only English men should be appointed to the posts. The question of their training, therefore, did not arise.

‡ Ibid, 1862-63, pp. 35-39.

§ Ibid, 1866-67, p. 33.

§ In one of his letters to Government written as late as in 1895-96, the Director of Education observed: “Every Educational authority in Bombay from Sir Alexander Grant down to the present time has declared the University to be the only Training College required for Secondary Schools. Sir Alexander Grant was the most distinguished educational officer that ever came to India, and we have steadily worked on his plan since he left us in 1868”—Report of the Director of Public Instruction, Bombay, for 1895-96, Appendix D.

were taken for the establishment of a training college for secondary teachers, although such an institution was established in Madras as early as in 1856.

This policy is really based on two assumptions: (1) that all teachers in high schools would at least be graduates; and (2) that a graduate does not need any professional training to make him a good teacher. Even assuming that the second of these statements is valid, this policy often failed in practice partly because a very large number of assistant masters in secondary schools were only under-graduates and partly because a substantial proportion of them was that of matriculates who had never entered the portals of the university. It was, therefore, felt necessary to take some measures for the improvement of matriculate or under-graduate assistant masters. In Government schools, it was laid down that all teachers of English must hold a certificate of competency from an Inspector and headmasters were required to impart some knowledge of teaching to their assistants. A convention was also laid down that new recruits to the cadre of secondary teachers should be required to serve for a time in the more important Government high schools in order that they might learn their duties under the eye of the most experienced headmasters. It was, therefore, argued that the "first grade High Schools discharge the functions of Secondary Training Colleges; and the experience of the last 15 years appears to prove that this economical system meets all the requirements of the smaller secondary schools without weakening the teaching staff of any of the larger institutions."* In so far as the aided schools are concerned, a rule was laid down that the headmasters must be university graduates and it was expected that they would train their undergraduate or matriculate assistants in the same way as the headmasters of Government schools did. It would not be readily granted that these arrangements are a poor apology for training. But at this period, it was held that this system was both economical and successful; that it did not lead to any lowering of standards in secondary schools; and that there was, in consequence, no justification for the establishment of a training institution for secondary teachers.†

This policy of a flat refusal to adopt measures for the proper training of secondary teachers began to be attacked from higher quarters, especially after 1882. The Indian Education Commission could not definitely make up its mind on the necessity of training for secondary teachers and merely recommended that "an examination in the principles

* Report of the Bombay Provincial Committee of the Indian Education Commission, 1882, p. 125.

† In 1881-82, the Bombay Provincial Committee of the Indian Education Commission recommended that no change need be made in the existing system in Bombay and as late as in 1895-96, when the Government of India raised the question of the training of secondary teachers, the Director of Education wrote: "I am at a loss to understand why this question of training of secondary schools teachers crops up again. There has never been any complaint against our Secondary Schools." Report of the Director of Public Instruction, Bombay, for 1895-96, Appendix D.

and practice of teaching be instituted, success in which should hereafter be a condition of permanent employment as a teacher in any secondary school, Government or aided."* The Government of India, however, were not satisfied with this tame recommendation and began to suggest that regular provision for the training of secondary teachers should be made. In 1887, for instance, the Governor-General in Council declared that, "in the truest interest of education....Colleges for teachers of English..... should be regarded as the first charge on the educational grant.† Again in 1889, it was declared that "the Governor-General in Council considers it impossible to secure good instructors without such a process of selection and preparation as a 'Normal Training School' gives and is unable to regard the adoption of examination in the art of teaching as an adequate substitution for good normal schools. His Excellency in Council, therefore, deems it essential that each Local Government should accept the responsibility of providing means for training teachers for each grade of Schools—primary, middle and high—as a first charge on the educational grant."‡ Similar statements were again repeated during the next quinquennium so that the Department was at last forced to yield. In 1896-97, it was reported that "examinations in the knowledge of school method and the science of teaching are none under consideration,"§ and the Secondary Teachers' Certificate Examination (or the S. T. C.) was actually introduced in 1899. It was to be conducted by the Divisional Inspectors and the printed papers were to be the same for all divisions. The Examination consisted of two parts (i) Theory of teaching and (ii) Practice of teaching. For the former, the candidates were to read three books prescribed by the Department; and for the latter, they were to be examined by the Inspectors in class teaching and class discipline. The Examination was open to graduates as well as to those who had passed the University Entrance Examination or the School Final, provided that they were teachers in Government or recognised schools.

7 (3). *The S. T. C. Examination (1899-1955).*—The S. T. C. Examination which thus started in 1899 is being conducted by the Department to this date. In the earlier days, it used to be managed centrally from the office of the Director of Education; but it has since been transferred to the control of the Principal, Secondary Training College, Bombay and a special Board has also been constituted for it. It is worthy of note that, in spite of the organisation of a large number of training institutions and courses for graduate and undergraduate or matriculate teachers during the present century, this examination has not lost its popularity and is still being availed of by a large number of teachers every year. This is mainly due to the fact that it provides a very convenient half-way house between a full-fledged training course (for which the teacher has to make some financial sacrifice) and no training at all (which also results in some loss of pay).

* Report, p. 254.

† Progress of Education in India, 1887-92, p. 213.

‡ Ibid, p. 214.

§ Report of the Director of Public Instruction, Bombay, 1896-97, p. 24.

The course prescribed for the Examination has become wider and more comprehensive during the last fifty years. Prior to the S. T. C. Examination held in 1933, the examination in theory was conducted in two papers only: (1) History of Education and General Methods; and (2) Special Methods, School Organisation and Hygiene. A new course was then brought into effect from the Examination held in July, 1933. According to the revised rules, the Examination was then held in two revised papers, viz., (1) History of Education and Elementary Principles of Education; and (2) Methods of Teaching and School Organization and Hygiene. The rules of the Examination were further revised by G.R., E.D., No. 566 of 23rd July, 1941, and 1st July, 1943 and the Examination was then conducted in the following papers:—

- (1) Paper I —Elementary Principles of Education.
- (2) Paper II —(a) School Organization and Hygiene.
(b) Hygiene.
- (3) Paper III—Special Methods.

Since 1954, the syllabus for Part I of the Examination is still further amended and the candidates taking the Examination are now examined in the following papers:—

- (1) Paper I —Elementary Principles of Education.
- (2) Paper II —School Organization and Hygiene and Educational Administration and Movements.
- (3) Paper III—General Methods.
- (4) Paper IV—Special Methods.

Formerly, by way of preparation for the S. T. C. Examination Part II, candidates were required to give at least 15 lessons under the supervision of a headmaster or some teacher approved by the Educational Inspector concerned. This limit of 15 lessons was then raised to 30 lessons. Under the revised rules in force the candidates are now required to give 30 lessons, observe 50 lessons of trained teachers and write six essays under the guidance of teachers who have passed their B. T. Examination and who are approved for the work by the Educational Inspectors concerned.

Since the Examination held in May, 1954 candidates have been allowed the option to answer the questions set at the Examination in the regional languages. This offers an incentive to some teachers in primary schools to pass the S. S. C. Examination and to get themselves trained by passing the S. T. C. Examination. As a result of this option the standard of work has gone up considerably. Not only has the pass percentage increased from about 58 per cent. to 80 per cent. but examiners report that the work turned out is of a better quality.

The following table shows the number of candidates who appeared for and passed the Examination in a few selected years of the present century:—

TABLE No. 7 (1)
S. T. C. Examination Results

Year.	Number of students who appeared at the Examination.	Number of students who became eligible for the S. T. Certificate.
1911-12	65	45
1921-22	61	27
1931-32	338	138
1936-37	553	182
1941-42	979	406
1946-47	232	95
1951-52	639	320
1953-54	408	366

Owing to the increasing popularity of this Examination, S. T. C. Institutes have been established at several centres and they provide a fairly rigorous and systematic course of training to the candidates. The improvement in the quality of the work turned out by the candidates in recent years is also partly due to the good work which these institutes have been doing.

7 (4). *The S. T. C. Diploma (1906-23).*—Very soon after the organisation of the S. T. C. Examination, it became necessary to go a step further and to establish a training institution for secondary teachers. The lead in this matter came from Curzon who, in his Resolution of 1904 placed a great emphasis on teacher education. Besides, funds for the purpose also became available as a result of the liberal grants sanctioned by the Central Government. Hence a regular training institution for secondary teachers—the Secondary Training College in Bombay—was started in 1906. It had a staff of two officers only—a Principal who was formerly a professor in a Government college and who had paid some visits to training institutions in the United Kingdom before taking up his new duty and a Vice-Principal who was an experienced headmaster. The institution was located in two class-rooms of the Elphinstone High School, Bombay and admitted 35 students, of whom 30 were selected from Government institutions and 5 from the teachers of aided schools.

Till 1923, the College used to award its own Diploma called the Secondary Training College Diploma (or briefly the S. T. C. D.) and some idea of its work may be had from the following two quotations:—

"(1906-07).—The students are actually under instruction for about 18 hours a week. They attend lectures on method, psychology and the history of education; and they are taught elocution and drawing. Most of the time of the staff, however, is spent either in demonstration or criticism lessons; especially during the second term, in the latter. The students are required to do as much teaching as possible under supervision, the amount actually accomplished during the second term being perhaps six hours on an average for each student."*

"(1916-17).—The study of general educational problems is not encouraged, except so far as they appear in connection with history of education, special attention being paid to the history of Indian education. Students are warned against over-reading, especially the reading of books narrowly educational...The only books prescribed by the Department for examination are Quick's Educational Reformers' and Sully's 'Psychology for Teachers.' A course of lectures on school equipment lasts almost the whole year. Two courses of lectures on method have been given—one by the Principal in languages, history and geography and the other by the Vice-Principal, in science and mathematics general method being dealt with by both lecturers...During the first term, an hour a week is devoted to blackboard writing and an hour a week is devoted to phonetics and elocution during the whole year, special attention being devoted to the delivery of poetry. Demonstration lessons are given...For criticism lessons, of which about ten are given by each student during the year, the students do nothing but watch during the first month, then they give lessons under the supervision of the staff.....Science graduates only follow the scientific part of the work and learn in the laboratory the improvements needed for the new science course and to a small extent put boys through them."†

7 (5). *The B. T. Degree (1923-55).*—In 1923, the Secondary Training College, which was affiliated to the University of Bombay, admitted the first batch of students for the degree of Bachelor of Teaching (B.T.). This opened a new chapter in the training of secondary teachers in the State.

Great progress in the training of graduate teachers for secondary schools was made in this period. Hitherto, the S. T. College, Bombay, had mainly trained teachers for Government institutions. In 1927-28, therefore, its strength was raised to 60 and a larger number of seats were thrown open to private schools. In 1931-32, the strength was further raised to 75 and in 1932-33 to 100. But even this increase was far too inadequate to meet the demand and the aided schools were still greatly handicapped, in respect of getting their teachers trained. Fortunately, the Kolhapur State started the Shrimati Maharani Tarabai Teachers' Training College in 1934 and affiliated it to the Bombay University and the Baroda State also started a S. T. College in 1935 and affiliated it to the Bombay University in 1938. These two colleges were, therefore, of great assistance in training teachers of private schools, not only from Bombay but from other parts of India as well. In 1939, Government started a S. T. College in Belgaum primarily with a view to training secondary teachers for the Kannada area. In 1941, the Tilak College of

* Progress of Education for India, 1902-07, p. 218.

† Report of the Director of Public Instruction for 1912-17, pp. 75-76.

Education, Poona was established. In 1952, the A. G. Teachers' College was started in Ahmedabad. Thus in a period of about 30 years, the number of training colleges for graduate teachers increased from 1 in 1923-24 to 7 in 1954-55 and their accommodation from 35 to about 1,000 (inclusive of post-B. T. students).

It is interesting to study the broad changes that have been introduced in the B. T. Course during the last 30 years.* The Examination has always consisted of two parts—the theoretical and the practical. In the former, there were seven papers at a time, but now there are five. Philosophy of education, educational psychology, general and special methods, school management and hygiene—these have always been included in the curriculum. Experimental psychology, educational statistics, detailed study of the history of education in India, educational administration, problems of Indian education—these and some other topics have been added to the course from time to time, while topics like history of education in Europe have been omitted. Some universities like Poona and Baroda have adopted a core-curriculum consisting of the basic subjects given above and added an optional paper for which a teacher can select any field of specialisation such as Basic Education, Rural Education, Physical Education, etc. The practical examination has always included the observation of lessons in the subjects selected and has, since 1928-29 also included due consideration of the practical work done by a candidate during the year under training. In the early years every teacher was required to select either English or science as one of the two subjects of special study; but since 1939 this compulsion has been done away with and a candidate is now allowed to choose any two subjects from the prescribed curriculum. In short, it may be said that the modern trend is to deepen and broaden the theoretical course, to include some instruction in the use of modern aids of teaching and to stress practical training in the adoption of proper teaching methods. The course has, in consequence, become rather ambitious and a proposal has been made to lengthen the period of training to two years. But the adoption of this reform has been held up on financial grounds.

7 (6). *Training of Undergraduate Teachers.*—It will be seen from the foregoing review that although Bombay was late in adopting the concept of training graduate teachers, it has made such good progress during the last 50 years and especially since 1930, that it has been able to wipe out all past arrears and the arrangements now made by it for the training of graduate teachers can compare favourably with those of any other State in India. But the training arrangements for undergraduate teachers are still far from satisfactory. If the graduate teachers are given a year of intensive training, it is obvious that undergraduate teachers need a longer course of training at least of two years. But this reform has not yet been adopted due partly to financial difficulties and partly to the absence of a strong popular opinion on the subject.

* In the Bombay University, the B. T. Course was first introduced, as stated above, in 1922-23. Since then, major revisions have been made in 1928-29, 1937, 1939-40 and 1947. The other universities began by adopting the Bombay course, but have since introduced some important changes therein.

Undergraduate teachers in this State are trained in two courses—the S. T. C. which has been described earlier and the Diploma in Teaching (or the T.D.) which has been instituted by all the Universities in the State. This course can be taken by any candidate who has passed the First Year Examination in a College or by a Matriculate or S. S. C. E. passed candidate who has had three years' teaching experience. It is broadly similar to the B. T. Examination course but much simpler. Its theoretical part consists of four papers, viz., (1) Elementary Principles of Education and Psychology; (2) Special Methods; (3) General Method, School Hygiene and School Administration; (4) Twentieth century developments in Indian Education and Educational Administration in the State of Bombay; and its practical part consists of two lessons in any two out of the three special subjects selected by the candidate. As at the S. T. C. Examination, candidates have the option to answer their papers in the regional languages.

Unfortunately, T. D. courses have not been popular although the Diploma has been recognised by the Department and provision for its teaching has been made by several colleges. It confers the same professional status as the S. T. C. but is more difficult to be obtained because it requires a years' attendance at a college. Consequently, teachers prefer to do the S. T. C. rather than the T. D. and hence the S. T. C. is still the principal method for the training of undergraduate secondary teachers in the State.

7 (7). *Educational Research and Higher Courses in Education.*—Until 1936, there was no provision in the State for the training of research workers in Education. In that year, the Bombay University instituted the M.Ed. Degree (by research) and the Ph.D. (in Education) in 1941. Educational research thus made a slow and late beginning in the State and until now about a hundred theses on different subjects have been accepted by the Universities in the State. Recently, educational research has been receiving considerable attention at the hands of the authorities, thanks mainly to the efforts of the veteran educationist Shri R. V. Parulekar. A research section has now been set up at the S. S. C. E. Board, a Research Department has been organised by the Bombay Corporation and a proposal to set up a research bureau in the office of the Director of Education has been administratively approved by Government. It is, therefore, hoped that the cause of educational research will make greater and quicker progress in the future.

During the last decade, all the universities in the State have made provision for the Master of Education Degree which can be taken either entirely by papers or partly by papers and partly by research. This degree has become quite popular and has helped to raise the standard of teacher education in the State.

B—TRAINING OF PRIMARY TEACHERS (MEN)

7 (8). *Training of Primary Teachers (1824-55).*—The importance of the training of primary teachers was recognised very early. In fact, it may be said that the training of teachers preceded even the organisation of Primary Education. When the Bombay Native Education Society decided

to start "vernacular schools" whose object was to spread Western science and literature through Marathi and Gujarati, there was an absolute dearth of teachers who were acquainted with these subjects. It was, therefore, decided to start a "training class" where the teachers to be would first be instructed in Western science and literature in order that they might impart it later on to their pupils. Thus the first training class for primary teachers began in 1824 and the schools themselves were started in 1826. While this shows the early realisation of the importance of training, it also shows that, at this period, the "training" of a primary teacher had a special connotation. It meant "general education" rather than instruction in the science and art of teaching. It is true that some tuition in the Lancastrian or Monitorial system of education was included in the training course. But that was a very incidental part and almost the whole emphasis of the course was on introducing the teacher to the science and literature of the West.

This pattern of training continued right till 1855. Under the scheme adopted by the Bombay Native Education Society and the Board of Education, a teacher had to be "trained" in the special sense described above before he could be put in charge of a "vernacular school"; and hence training classes were organised as and when necessary. The training class started in 1824 was continued for some time and then closed; and class for Kannada teachers was established for some time at Dharwar; another training class was conducted at Poona from about 1835 to 1845; an ambitious training class with a duration of three years was conducted in the Elphinstone Institution at Bombay from 1845 to 1848; a regular "normal department" was organised in the Poona College from 1851; and classes were started at Surat and Karachi in 1854. When the Department of Education was created in 1854-55, there were five normal classes in the State—2 at Poona, 2 at Surat and 1 at Karachi.

The duration of these training classes was generally two years. The syllabus included English, Sanskrit, Marathi, history, geography, mathematics (this included arithmetic, algebra, mechanics, astronomy and trigonometry), natural philosophy and the art of teaching. All the trainees were given small stipends during the period of their training and were required to give an undertaking that they would serve in a Government primary school for a specified term after their training was over. As may be anticipated, the whole emphasis of the course was on subject knowledge and not on pedagogy. Hence, a practising school was not necessarily attached to a training class, but the trainees were occasionally required to question each other.

In short, it may be said that, prior to 1855, there were three main features of the system of training primary teachers:

(1) Firstly, the problem of the training of teachers, as we understand it to-day, was not properly appreciated and the "training" of this period meant really the teacher's introduction to Western science and literature;

(2) Secondly, training was in fact obligatory because the syllabus of the primary schools was so ambitious* that no teacher would have been able to conduct a primary school unless he was so trained; and

(3) Thirdly, in spite of this obligation, no regular training institutions were organised because the total number of primary schools was very small and they were expanding at a very slow pace.

7 (9). *Training of Primary Teachers (1855-65)*.—The Department of Education had to carry out the orders of the Despatch of 1854 which had recommended the adoption of the pupil-teacher system which had been successfully worked out in England. Hence Erskine proposed that "selected youths in each taluka should be apprenticed as pupil-teachers, for three years on stipends rising from Rs. 3 to Rs. 5 per mensem, to the ablest vernacular school masters in the neighbourhood; and that, on successfully passing through their term of apprenticeship, they should be sent up for a further course of instruction on stipends of Rs. 6 per mensem to the District Training College, from which they would eventually return to their respective talukas as trained teachers. To this end Mr. Erskine proposed to increase the number of Training Colleges and to strengthen those already established by placing them under the charge of experts selected from England."¶ But these plans were not sanctioned partly on financial considerations and partly on the ground that they were in advance of the times.†

Howard began to tackle the problem on right lines. As early as in 1856-57, he emphasised that the old system of training had to be radically altered. "It is well known", he wrote, "that in England school-keeping is now a recognised art or craft and is taught like other arts. In the case of persons of great original ability, it may be that such special training would not add much to their practical efficiency. They will find out their own methods and use them with success. But with persons of inferior talent and humble education, the case is very different; for them professional training is every thing, as it is for any other artisan in his particular calling."‡ He, therefore, suggested that, "for the complete success of an Indian training establishment for masters, vernacular as well as English, three elements seem required. 1st—A superintending and teaching staff, capable of exercising strong and permanent moral and refining influence, as well as communicating sufficient positive knowledge, 2nd—Provision for teaching the pupils the special business of school-keeping, 3rd—A school of boys, in which they may practise teaching under the eye of their professional instructor."§ In accordance with these principles, Howard converted the existing training "classes" into permanent training "schools" or "colleges" and attached practising schools to them. But unfortunately, he did not continue to hold these views for long. As stated earlier, he went to England about 1861, and when he

* See Chapter III for details.

¶ Report of the Bombay Provincial Committee of the Indian Education Commission, p. 18.

† Report of the Director of Public Instruction, Bombay, 1856-57, para. 35.

‡ Report of the Director of Public Instruction, Bombay, 1856-57, p. 16.

§ Ibid, p. 17.

returned, he began to condemn all professional training and emphasized good general education, pure and simple. For example, in 1862-63, he wrote, "I think there is ample evidence of the evil which has been produced at home by the practice of withdrawing a crowd of needy lads from common schools, bringing them to adopt the profession of a school-master, and training them for the business in special seminaries from which other pupils are excluded. It is true that we thus get a certain number of teachers for wages rather below their market value, but we are also in danger of creating a set or caste of self-conceited, narrow-minded, and discontented persons.

"51. It, therefore, appeared to me that the Normal Colleges ought before all things to be made first-rate schools of general instruction and something has been done at Poona and also at Ahmedabad to realize this conceptions. I beg respectfully to refer to my circular in Appendix (G), as containing a sketch of the work which the *Vernacular Colleges* will henceforth attempt. They will invite not future teachers only, but also general students. They will carry the lower classes through a short revision of vernacular school work, and the upper classes through the best curriculum that is possible to pupils who only know their own language. To this will be added in all cases, English and the study of Vernacular literature (including Prakrit poetry); also, for those select scholars who can beneficially receive such instruction, Sanskrit or higher Mathematics Natural Science, Drawing, etc."

"52. Superior vernacular schoolmasters will be thus provided. Promising monitors or pupil teachers are to be selected from district schools by the Inspecting Officers on their tours and sent up with Exhibitions to the Vernacular College. Thence they will return after two or three years study, and become I trust, among their own people, contented as well as well-qualified teachers. Government will observe that the experiment of giving a superior education through the medium of the Vernacular languages will thus be tried under favourable circumstances."*

The Vernacular Colleges that Howard referred to were tried at Poona and Ahmedabad between 1863 and 1865. They attempted to give all higher education through Marathi and Gujarathi; but unfortunately, they failed to achieve success and were closed down by Grant.† This experiment of Howard has a great educational significance because of its pioneer value in giving Collegiate Education through modern Indian languages. Similarly, its failure was due, not to any intrinsic defect, but to the love of English education which was becoming popular because of the financial gain it offered through the prospect of employment—a contingency which Howard himself had feared and even anticipated.‡ But when everything is said in favour of the experiment, it must be conceded that it was a wrong method of "training" primary teachers.

Owing to this vascillation of views, Howard was not able to achieve any great results in teacher-training. When he laid down his office in

* Report of the Director of Public Instruction, Bombay, 1862-63, pp. 39-40.

† Ibid, 1865-66.

‡ Ibid, 1862-63, p. 40.

1865, "training schools were in operation at Poona, Ahmedabad, Rajkot, Belgaum, Hyderabad (Sind) and Sukkur and they contained in all 180 stipendiary students. The two first were reported to be efficient, that at Ahmedabad being superintended by a native scholar, who had visited England and acquainted himself with the various systems pursued in the Training Colleges at Cheltenham and other places. In the year 1864, the Poona and Ahmedabad Training Institutions supplied the Vernacular Schools of Gujarat and Maharashtra with 100 teachers. The other training schools contributed but little towards the improvement of Vernacular Schools; and in the Kanarese districts, as well as in Sind, very few of the schoolmasters employed spoke the same mother-tongue as their pupils; or, if they did, they were incompetent to teach it. In both Divisions the masters were mostly Marathi-speaking men, and in the former they had at the best no more than a colloquial knowledge of Kanarese. Mr. Howard had proposed, indeed, to establish a training school or class in every zilla, in order that the candidate-masters might not be taken far from their homes,—a circumstance which, as he remarked, is always found in this country to increase the costliness of all kinds of labour. But the scheme was not carried into effect; and hence the pupil-teacher system, as devised by Mr. Erskine, was as yet but imperfectly developed."*

7 (10). *Training of Primary Teachers (1865-1901)*.—Between 1865 and 1870, the situation changed radically. In the first place, the levy of the local fund cess brought in large additional funds for Primary Education so that the number of primary schools increased from 925 in 1864-65 to 2,788 in 1870-71. This large expansion necessitated a substantial increase in the output of trained teachers. Secondly, the syllabus of primary schools was greatly simplified by Grant so that, in 1865-66, the primary schools had a four years' course and taught the three R's only. Hence the need to introduce primary teachers to Western science and literature was no longer felt. Thirdly, training now became merely desirable (whereas it had been almost obligatory in the past) because a teacher could be expected to teach the simple course now prescribed for primary schools *without* any specialised training. He would, of course, teach it better, if trained; but that was an additional qualification which, it was now argued might be dispensed with in emergencies.

In view of these changed circumstances and ideas, Grant and Peile carried out two fundamental reforms. The first was the organisation of all training colleges on a new pattern by adopting a simple syllabus which combined some general education and a good deal of professional training; and the second was to start the practice of appointing fully trained (i. e. for two years) masters to more important schools; partially trained (i. e. for one year only) masters to smaller schools; and even "untrained" masters as assistants or head-teachers of minor schools when the supply of trained teachers was not able to keep pace with the expansion. Peile, in particular, prepared the first Training College Code and made such drastic changes that the modern system of training primary teachers is said to date with him. According to his plan, "a candidate,

* Report of the Bombay Provincial Committee of the Indian Education Commission, p. 30.

on leaving school at 15, was attached as a pupil-teacher to the master of a good vernacular school. After two years' apprenticeship he was sent up to a Training College where he passed a preliminary year, and after that, if found fit, received either one or two years of systematic training. On obtaining a 1st or 2nd class certificate of training for one or for two years, as the case might be, he was entitled, on appointment as a teacher, to a fixed minimum pay according to his class; and, if head or sole master, to a capitation and proficiency allowance which varied with the number and quality of his school. Mr. Peile thus graded the whole staff of vernacular teachers in seven ascending steps, on the lowest of which a steady industrious youth might place himself with the certainty of guaranteed competence and of the opportunity of adding to his means by his own exertions, viz., (1) pupil-teacher, (2) unpassed assistant, (3) passed assistant, (4) 1st year certificated master of the 2nd class, (5) 1st year certificated master of the 1st class, (6) 2nd year certificated master of the 2nd class, and (7) 2nd year certificated master of the 1st class. In addition to this, all teachers whose salaries exceeded Rs. 10 per mensem were made eligible for pension. This system brought about marked improvement in the personnel of primary schools and increased the number of students in Training Colleges from 180 in 1865 to 456 in 1870-71."*

Between 1870-71, and 1881-82, there was very little progress mainly due to financial difficulties. In 1881-82, the number of training colleges was 7—the same as in 1870-71—and the number of trainees had increased only from 456 in 1870-71 to 480 in 1881-82. "The total number of teachers employed in cess (District Local Board) schools at the end of the year 1881-82 was 9,314. Of these 4,565 were head or sole masters, 2,683 were assistant masters, and 2,066 pupil-teachers. Of the head-masters or sole-masters, 45.4 per cent. were trained; and of the assistant masters, 13.9 per cent. were certified. The minimum qualification for admission to a training institution was the passing of the Public Service Examination."†

The Indian Education Commission, 1882, placed a great emphasis on the training of primary teachers and recommended (1) that the supply of normal schools, whether Government or aided, be so localised as to provide for the local requirements of all primary schools, whether Government or aided, within the division under each Inspector; and (2) that the first charges on Provincial funds assigned for Primary Education be the costs of its direction and inspection and the provision of adequate normal schools. Both these recommendations were accepted by Government. But when proposals for expansion of training institutions for primary teachers were actually submitted by the Department, they were rejected on the ground that "the existing colleges provided a sufficient supply of trained men."‡

Between 1881-82 and 1901-02, therefore, there was no material improvement in the training of men primary teachers. In 1901-02, there were in all seven training institutions for men primary teachers with a total

* Report of the Primary Teachers' Training Committee (More Committee), pp. 5-6.

† Ibid, p. 6.

‡ Ibid, p. 8.

enrolment of 614. Of these, as many as 5 were conducted by Government—one for each of the four divisions of the State and an additional normal school at Dhulia to meet the demands of the large Marathi speaking areas. There was only one private institution—the Training College maintained by the Christian Vernacular Education Society at Ahmednagar—and the last institution was conducted by the Indian States in Kathiawar.

7 (11). *Training of Primary Teachers (1901-21).*—In the new educational policy laid down by Curzon, a great emphasis was laid on the training of primary teachers. Between 1901-02 and 1921-22, therefore, there was a great increase in the number of training institutions for men primary teachers as the following table will show:—

TABLE NO. 7 (2)

Training Institutions for Primary Teachers (Men) (1901-02 to 1921-22)

Year.	Government.	D. L. B. or Municipal.	Indian States.	Aided.	Unaided.	Total.
1901-02						
Institutions ...	5	...	1	1	...	7
Pupils ...	488	...	44	82	...	614
1906-07						
Institutions ...	5	...	1	1	...	7
Pupils ...	938	...	63	77	...	1078
1911-12						
Institutions ...	5	...	1	1	...	7*
Pupils ...	905	...	65	59	...	1029
1916-17						
Institutions ...	10	13*	...	2	...	25
Pupils ...	1278	80	...	73	...	1431
1921-22						
Institutions ...	21	2	...	23
* Pupils ...	2013	70	...	2083

Between 1901-02 and 1906-07, a large portion of the Central grants received during this period was utilized for the provision of buildings, hostels and staff quarters, so that the general efficiency of training colleges improved very greatly. During the next quinquennium, the number of training colleges was not increased; but a number of re-training classes were held for teachers who needed refreshing. Besides, as many

* There were, in 1911-12, 13 local classes (with a total enrolment of 190) in addition to the institutions mentioned here. These were conducted by the Department. The 13 classes conducted in 1916-17 were similar in scope but conducted on behalf of local bodies.

as 13 normal classes were organised in the Southern Division—two normal classes in each of the 6 districts and 1 Urdu normal class at Hubli. These classes were attended by 190 teachers in all. Their object was “to give the raw young men that had to be employed or rather pressed into service an insight into the work of teaching before putting them in charge of schools or classes.....Vernacular Final men willing to serve as masters immediately after the completion of the short course at the class were admitted.....All the passed men were employed.”* During the next quinquennium also, this experiment was continued for some time and even in 1916-17, there were 13 such classes with an enrolment of 80 students. But they did not prove to be successful and were ultimately abandoned.

Between 1911-12 and 1916-17, the most important development was to abandon the old policy of maintaining one primary training college for men in each division. This policy had been adopted at a time when the expansion of Primary Education was not large. But the number of primary schools had now increased so greatly that it was no longer adequate to meet the requirements of the situation. It was, therefore, decided to start training schools† in every district of the State. In the beginning, these schools were expected to provide only the first year's course of the training college syllabus; but it was expected that, in a short time, they would provide for the second year's course and, if necessary, for the third year's course as well. Ultimately, therefore, it was expected that every district would have a full-fledged training college of its own for primary teachers. A beginning in this direction was made during this quinquennium so that the number of Government training institutions for primary teachers increased from 5 with 905 pupils in 1911-12 to 10 with 1,278 pupils in 1916-17 and in 1921-22, their number increased still further to 21 with 2,013 pupils.

In spite of this increase in the number of training institutions, however, the percentage of trained teachers did not improve very materially. Even in 1921-22, the number of trained teachers in boys' schools was 14,218 out of 28,875 or 49.2 per cent. only. The expansion of training facilities for primary teachers had not, therefore, been able to keep pace with the growth of Primary Education. Consequently, the uneducational methods adopted during the earlier period such as the employment of a large number of untrained teachers, the appointment of partially trained teachers, and discontinuous system of training were also continued during the period under review.

It will also be noticed from the above table that the number of aided training institutions had increased to two in 1921-22. The new training college started during this period was the S. P. Mission Training College for Men at Ahmedabad. Both the training institutions of this period were, therefore, conducted by the missions and Indian private enterprise had not yet entered the field.

* Report of the Director of Public Instruction, Bombay, 1911-12, p. 36.

† A Training College was an institution where the full Training Course of three years was provided and a Training School was an institution where the first or the second year's course only was provided.

7 (12). *Training of Primary Teachers (1921-37).*—Owing to the financial difficulties of this period, much of the progress made between 1901-02 and 1921-22 was now lost. As a measure of economy, Government decided (1) to discontinue the district training schools that were started in the earlier period; (2) to restrict the output of second and third year trained teachers very greatly; and (3) to appoint a large number of untrained or only first year trained teachers to primary schools. Consequently, there was a great decrease in the number of training institutions as well as in their accommodation between 1921-22 and 1936-37. The following table shows how disastrous were the results of the financial stringency of this period on the training institutions for primary teachers.

TABLE NO. 7 (3)

Training Institutions for Primary Teachers (Men) (1921-22 to 1936-37)

Year.	Government.	D. L. B. or Municipal.	Aided.	Unaided.	Total.
1921-22					
Institutions	...	21	...	2	23
Pupils	...	2013	...	70	2083
1926-27					
Institutions	...	12	1	2	15
Pupils	...	933	4	62	999
1931-32					
Institutions	...	9	1	2	12
Pupils	...	605	27	79	711
1936-37					
Institutions	...	8	...	3	11
Pupils	...	790	...	111	901

N.B.—Of the 3 aided institutions, two were conducted by the missions and the third was the Silver Jubilee Rural Training College started by the Rayat Shikshan Sanstha at Satara. This marks the first entry of Indian private enterprise in this field.

7 (13). *Training of Primary Teachers (1937-55).*—When the first Popular Ministry came to power, it appointed a special Committee under the Chairmanship of Shri S. S. More to enquire into the problem of the training of primary teachers. After a very careful study of the whole

problem, the Committee made a number of very useful recommendations. These included the following:—

(1) The passing of the P. S. C. Examination is not an adequate qualification for primary teachers. It is necessary that every primary teacher should have received at least ten years general education. A new type of an institution, to be called the Lokashalas, should be organised to give three years further education to P. S. C. passed pupils and they should attempt a course which is equivalent to the Matriculation *minus* English.

(2) Training institutions should as far as possible be relieved of the obligation of imparting general education and they should hereafter devote practically all their resources to professional training.

(3) The third year course should be discontinued forthwith and the accommodation thus released should be utilised for the admission of more candidates to the first and second year classes.

(4) Intermittent training should be immediately discontinued and replaced by a system of continuous training for a period of two years.

(5) The first year trained teachers in service below the age of 40 should be given one year's training in the 2nd year class of the present training institutions.

(6) In future, no untrained teacher should be confirmed.

These far-reaching recommendations were accepted by Government and thus a new chapter was opened in the history of primary teacher training in the State.

The problem of Lokhashalas has already been dealt with in Chapter V. The failure of these institutions was rather a set back to the plan of teacher-training proposed by the More Committee. But matriculate (or S. S. C. passed) candidates now began to be admitted to the second year course of primary teacher training institutions and put through a professional training of one year. This reform made up, to some extent the deficiency created by the absence of Lokashalas.

As Government now accepted the policy of training *every* teacher in a continuous course of two years, a very large expansion of training institutions was necessary, partly to train the large number of untrained or partially trained teachers who were already in service and partly to provide for the annual replacement necessary on account of retirement, death, etc. Government, therefore, increased the number of training institutions conducted by it and announced a liberal system of grants to private institutions for the training of primary teachers. Consequently,

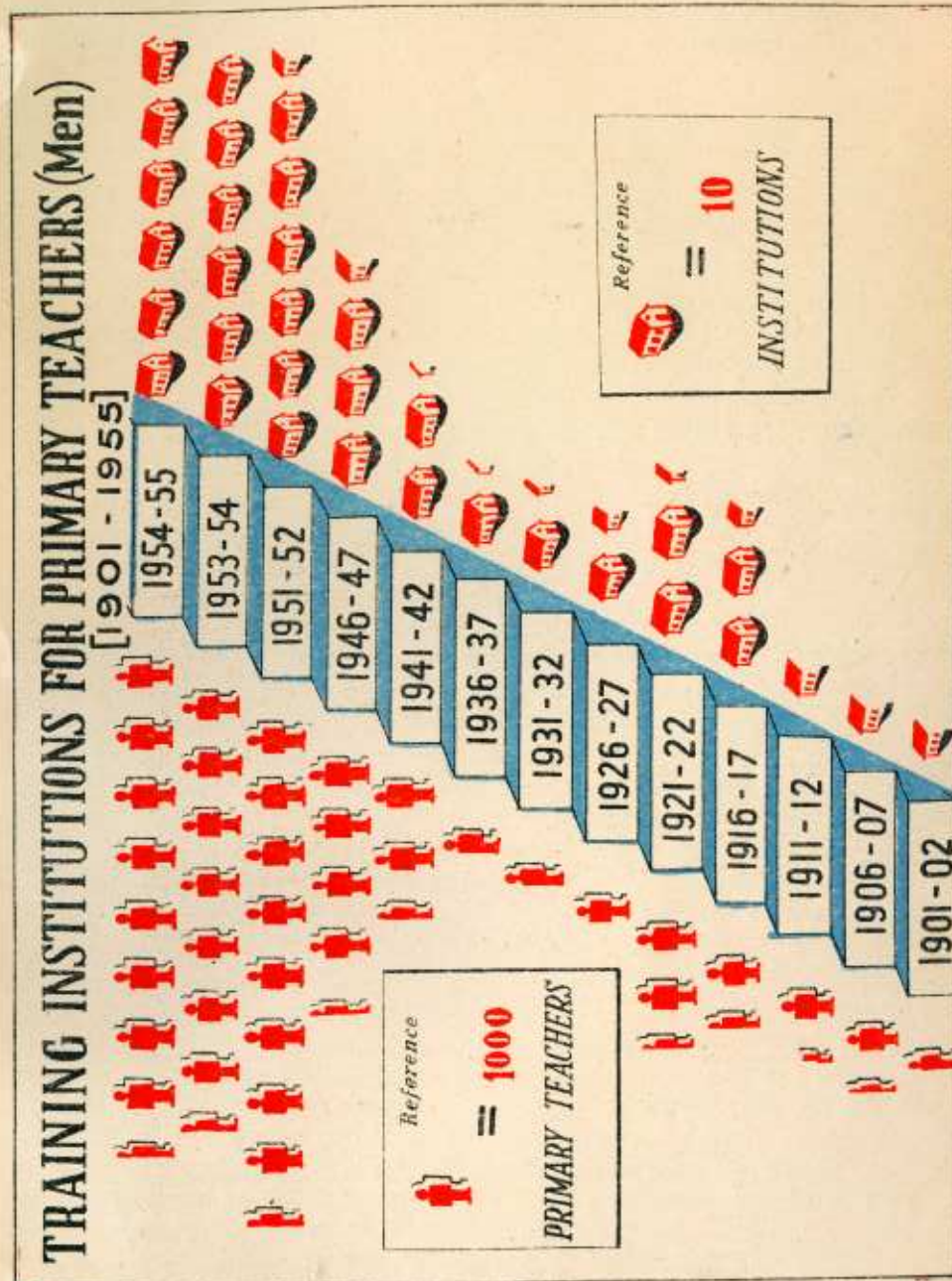
the training colleges for men primary teachers increased very largely between 1936-37 and 1954-55 as the following table will show:—

TABLE No. 7 (4)

Training Institutions for Primary Teachers (Men) (1936-37 to 1954-55)

Year.	Government.	D. L. B. or Municipal.	Aided.	Unaided.	Total.
1936-37					
Institutions	8	...	3	...	11
Pupils	790	...	111	...	901
1941-42					
Institutions	12	2	7	...	21
Pupils	1480	117	726	...	2323
1946-47					
Institutions	15	5	16	...	36
Pupils	2127	193	1781	...	4081
1951-52					
Institutions	25	...	41	...	66
Pupils	3757	...	4608	...	8365
1953-54					
Institutions	23	...	36	...	59
Pupils	3537	...	3992	...	7529
1954-55					
Institutions	23	...	36	...	59
Pupils	3546	...	4700	...	8246

It will be seen from the above table that large as the expansion of Government training institutions is, the increase in the number and accommodation of private institutions for the training of primary teachers is even larger. This was mainly due to the liberal policy adopted by Government. Hitherto, Government had held the view that the teachers of Government, Local Board, and Municipal schools must be trained in institutions conducted by the Department. This policy was now abandoned and Government began to depute teachers working in the Local Board or Municipal schools to private institutions and also to pay the full fees of the teachers so deputed. Besides, fairly liberal grants for non-recurring expenditure and a grant-in-aid at 50 per cent. of the recurring expenditure were also given. Consequently, private enterprise showed



a very substantial progress in this field and the number of training institutions for men primary teachers increased from 3 with 111 pupils in 1936-37 to 36 with 4,700 pupils in 1954-55. It is also worthy of note that most of these institutions were conducted by Indian private enterprise.

In order to encourage untrained or partially trained teachers in service to undergo training, Government decided, in 1939-40, to give "duty pay" to all permanent local authority teachers. In 1953, however, this policy was discontinued on financial grounds and the old system of giving stipends was revived. It was now directed that (1) all teachers who were either permanent or had put in five years' continuous service prior to 15th June, 1952, should be given duty pay; (2) that all other teachers whose continuous service began before the above date should be given stipends instead of duty pay; (3) that all teachers employed after 3rd August, 1953, should also be given stipends if they have passed the Lokashala or the S. S. C. Examination or have secured more than 60 per cent. of the marks in the P. S. C. Examination (to be reduced to 55 per cent. in the case of backward class candidates); and (4) that all other teachers employed after 3rd August, 1953, should get themselves trained at their own cost. It is obvious that this new policy will reduce the cost of training very materially within a few years.

7 (14). *Syllabus of Training Colleges for Men Primary Teachers (1855-1955).*—As already stated, the syllabus of the training classes for primary teachers organised before 1855 used to be extremely ambitious in content. Not only did it include the whole curriculum of primary schools, which in itself was ambitious enough, but the study of English and Sanskrit as well. Howard made no attempt to simplify this syllabus. On the other hand, his concept of *vernacular colleges* made the curriculum even more elaborate. It now included English (upto and inclusive of the third Reader); Sanskrit (equivalent to about the S. S. C. E. standard of to-day); Marathi; geography of the World, geology, and map-drawing; arithmetic, algebra and geometry; natural philosophy; history of India; and school management. Besides, the trainees had to attend lectures given by Shri (later on Sir) Ramkrishna G. Bhandarkar and Shri Krishnashastri Chiplunkar on such subjects as logic, mental philosophy, jurisprudence, psychology, politics, economics and philosophy.*

All these experiments, the object of which was to introduce the teacher to the highest form of Western science and literature that could be conveyed through the modern Indian languages, were finally abandoned between 1865 and 1870 when Grant and Peile opened a new chapter in the training of primary teachers by adopting a simplified syllabus which

* This was the syllabus prescribed for the Poona College, that for Ahmedabad College was similar and merely substituted Gujarati for Marathi.

was better correlated with the work of primary schools. The curriculum introduced by Grant in 1865-66 eliminated all the higher subjects on which Chiplunkar and Bhandarkar used to lecture and reduced the content under other heads, although it still retained the study of Sanskrit and English. The syllabus introduced by Peile in 1870 eliminated English and simplified the content under other heads still further. As the modern system of teacher-training dates with Peile, this syllabus may well be taken as the starting point of the history of the curriculum of primary training colleges. It was spread over three years. The first year was regarded as preparatory and was spent in making a thorough revision of the more difficult portions of the primary school syllabus. The second and third years were devoted to "training" proper and at the end of the course, a trainee was expected to have studied arithmetic (complete); Euclid, Books I and II, with exercises; algebra up to quadratic equations; book-keeping; mother-tongue; elementary Sanskrit; physical geography and geography of India; use of the globe; perspective and plan drawing; maps; general knowledge of European and Asiatic peoples connected with India; elementary view of the political system; laws of Government of India, economic history of India, and countries in contact with it; elementary astronomy and geology (including the solar and stellar system, cause of eclipses, earthquakes, tides, rain, wind, cloud, etc., formation of earth's crust, and such other topics); and gymnastics. Under pedagogy, a trainee was required to master the art of teaching and have a knowledge of the principles of education,* the Departmental orders regarding the maintenance of school registers and accounts. It is true that this syllabus is far too simple in comparison with that of the vernacular colleges. But its bias is still on the side of subject-knowledge and on introducing the teacher to the elementary principles of Western science so that it accords only a very subordinate place to pedagogy proper. Owing to the poor general education of the average primary teacher, however, this bias towards subject-knowledge dominates the curriculum of training institutions for primary teachers even to this day, in spite of the modern emphasis on subjects like educational philosophy and psychology, special and general methods of teaching, school organisation and hygiene, etc. The only radical cure for the evil is to accept the principle that the completion of the secondary course is the *minimum* general education required in a primary teacher. Until persons so educated are available in sufficiently large numbers, especially in rural areas, the syllabus of primary teacher-training institutions will always show a struggle to balance subject-knowledge against pedagogy proper.

* The first Training College Code, which contains this syllabus, has been printed at pp. 381-88 of the Report for 1869-70.

During the last 85 years, the syllabus of primary training institutions has been revised on several occasions, the more important revisions having been carried out in 1884, 1899, 1910, 1919, 1925, 1935, 1939, and 1949. Several reasons have led to these revisions. A radical revision of the primary school course inevitably affects the requirement of the training institutions and hence such revisions at the primary level are naturally accompanied by a corresponding revision of the training course as well. New ideas in teacher-training which were first evolved in the West and later accepted in India are also responsible for some of the revisions. Finally, the adoption of Basic Education as the pattern for the primary schools has necessitated a radical revision of the training course as well.

With these introductory observations, a summary of the principal changes introduced in the syllabus of primary training institutions since 1870 may be briefly stated here. The syllabus of 1884 was a direct result of the recommendations made by the Indian Education Commission of 1882. It included the compulsory study of the principles of school management, Sanskrit, mathematics, history, geography, mother-tongue and natural science. Physical education also continued to be a compulsory subject but drawing, carpentry and smithy were introduced as optional subjects. The syllabus of 1899, adopted mainly because of the decision to abandon the pupil-teacher system, continued the same compulsory subjects, although the content of studies under each was modified and added the study of one subject out of drawing, hand-work and agriculture on a compulsory basis. The syllabus of 1910 added kindergarten, native accounts and manual training as compulsory subjects. The syllabus of 1919 added nature-study or gardening as a compulsory subject because it had been introduced in the primary course by this time. But as these additions increased the volume of studies very considerably, a radical decision was taken and both algebra and classical languages were omitted from the curriculum. In 1925, the third year training class was abolished as a measure of economy and it was revived in 1935. Both these changes led to corresponding revisions of the training course which now emphasized practical work and observation and included an elementary knowledge of music. In 1939, the third year course was again abolished and the system of intermittent training was given up. This led to a very radical revision of the training course which now included a study of Hindi in addition to almost all the subjects included in the syllabus of 1925. Moreover, the adoption of Basic Education led to the preparation of an alternative course for the basic training schools. In 1949, however, it was decided to convert all primary teacher-training institutions to the basic pattern and hence it was decided to adopt the basic syllabus, with suitable modifications, for all primary training institutions. As stated earlier in Chapter IV, this reform has since been completed in 1954-55.

7 (15). *Expenditure*.—Statistics of expenditure on the training institutions for men primary teachers are available in a comparable form since 1881-82. These have been given in the following table:—

TABLE No. 7 (5)

Expenditure on the Training Institutions for Men Primary Teachers (1881 to 1955)

Year.	Government Funds.		Local Board and Municipal Funds.	Other sources.	Total.
	On Institutions under public management.	On aided institutions.			
1	2	2	4	5	6
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
1881-82	35,176	...	14,628	2	49,806
1891-92	61,079	2,000	29,933	6,152	99,164
1901-02	60,560	2,500	25,747	9,076	97,883
1911-12	1,19,702	2,500	47,216	8,321	1,77,739
1921-22	5,64,729	6,450	75,620	21,445	6,68,244
1936-37	1,99,422	5,750	6,817	18,229	2,30,218
1941-42	2,59,916	37,774	7,332	42,121	3,47,143
1946-47	4,43,365	1,20,875	31,279	1,17,214	7,12,733
1951-52	12,36,288	3,79,409	10,618	5,32,064	21,58,379
1953-54	10,99,841	3,89,484	...	4,55,343	19,44,668
1954-55	11,88,715	3,02,642	3,000	5,20,216	20,14,573

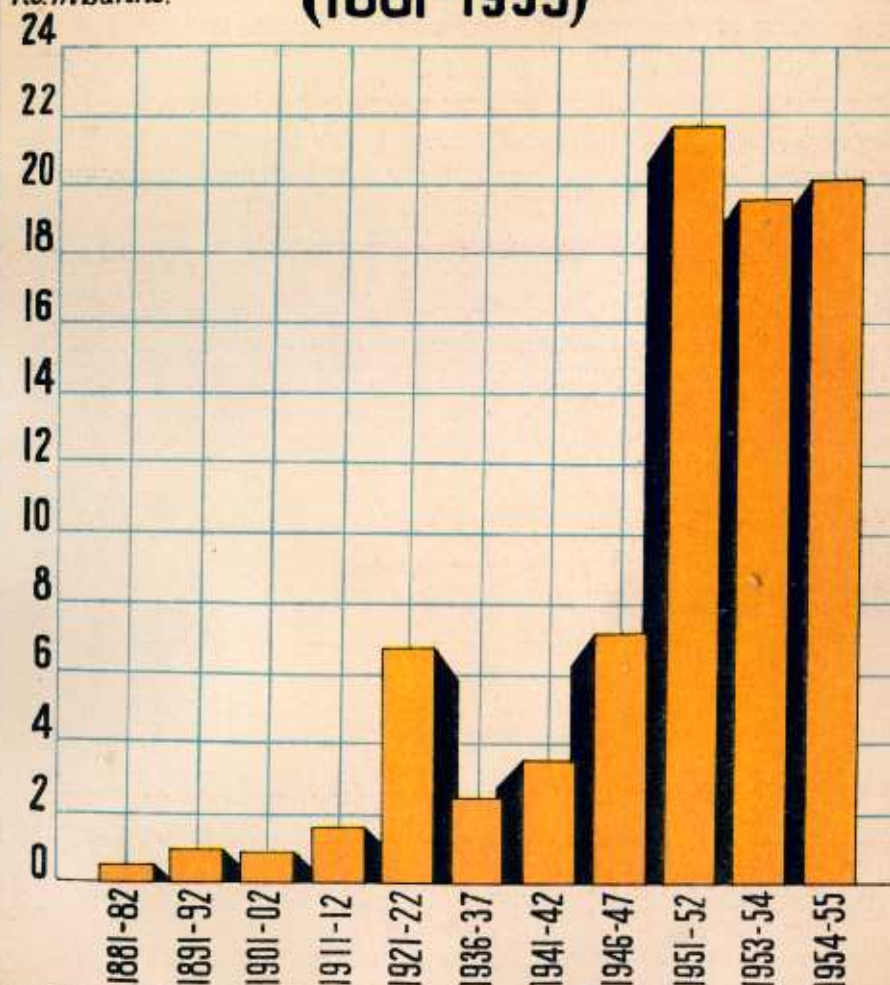
Certain modern trends in the financing of primary training institutions become evident from a careful study of these statistics. Until 1921-22, the general opinion held was that the local bodies are also responsible for the training of their primary teachers and should, therefore, be required to incur a fair amount of expenditure for the purpose. This view is no longer held. The local bodies have now been absolved from this responsibility which has been entirely taken over by Government. Secondly, the increasing role of private enterprise in the field can also be seen by the progress of expenditure under columns 3 and 5 of the above table. Thirdly, the effect of the disastrous cuts in the training programme made under the stress of financial difficulties experienced between 1921 and 1937 is also clearly shown in the above table which may be compared with table No. 7 (3) given earlier.*

* It is worthy of note that most of the cuts of this period were made in the case of men teachers and that the training of women teachers was not allowed to be seriously affected by financial stringency. Compare the figures for 1921-22 and 1936-37 in Tables 7 (5) and 7 (7).

EXPENDITURE ON THE TRAINING INSTITUTIONS FOR MEN PRIMARY TEACHERS

(1881-1955)

Rs. in Lakhs.



C—TRAINING OF PRIMARY TEACHERS (WOMEN)

7 (16). *Training Institutions and their Enrolment (1871-1955).*—The training of women primary teachers began late and the first training colleges for women were established as late as in 1870—forty-six years after the first training class was organised for men teachers. The growth of these institutions during the last 85 years is shown in the following table:

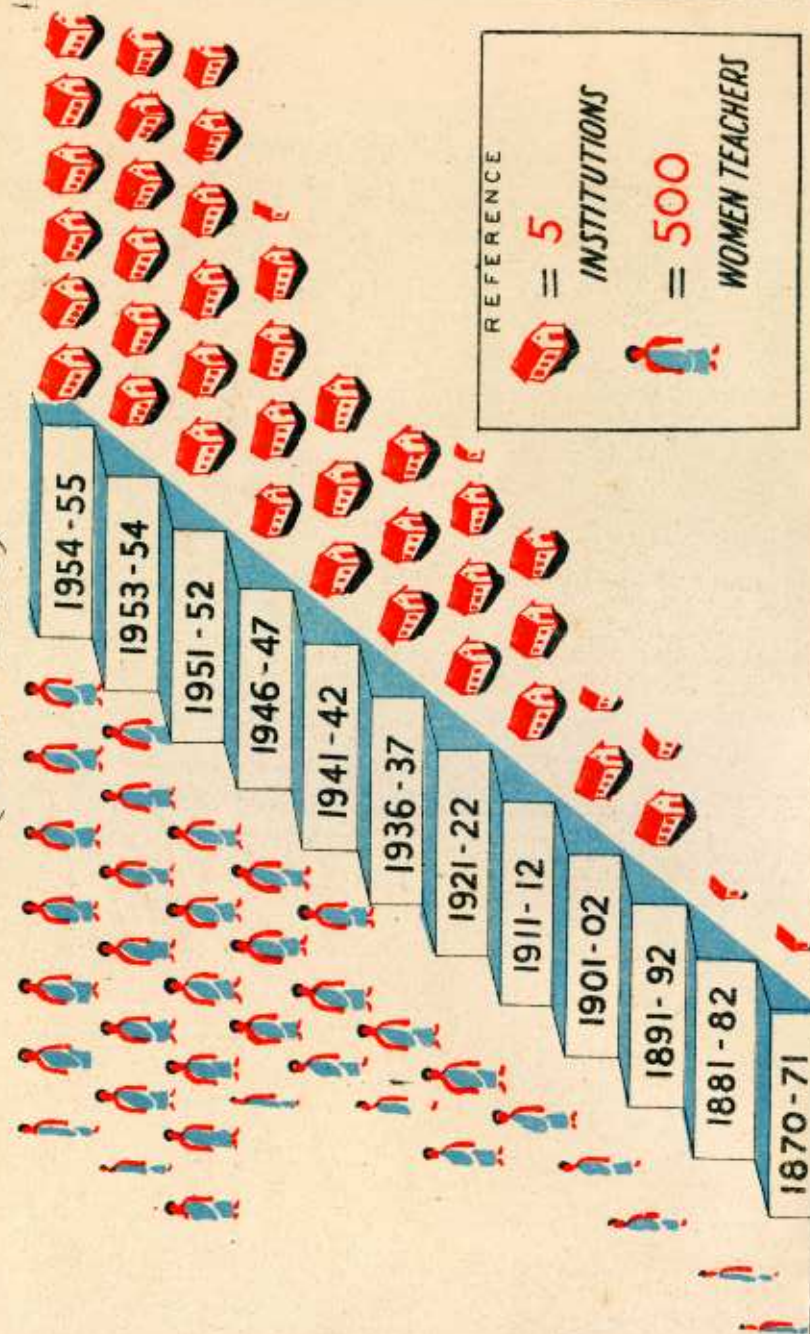
TABLE No. 7 (6)

Training Institutions for Women Primary Teachers (1870-1955)

	Year.	Government.	D. L. B. or Municipal.	Indian States	Aided.	Unaided.	Total.
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1870-71							
Institutions	...	2	2
Pupils	...	34	34
1881-82							
Institutions	...	2	2
Pupils	...	73	73
1891-92							
Institutions	...	2	2	2	1	...	7
Pupils	...	87	45	21	26	...	179
1901-02							
Institutions	...	2	3	1	1	...	7
Pupils	...	157	18	28	1	...	204
1911-12							
Institutions	...	4	1	1	2	6	14
Pupils	...	279	9	28	31	67	414
1921-22							
Institutions	...	4	1	...	12	...	17
Pupils	...	404	18	...	466	...	888
1936-37							
Institutions	...	4	1	...	9	...	14
Pupils	...	268	27	...	491	...	786
1941-42							
Institutions	...	5	1	...	9	...	15
Pupils	...	453	15	...	831	...	1299
1946-47							
Institutions	...	5	3	...	13	1	22
Pupils	...	470	97	...	886	82	1535
1951-52							
Institutions	...	8	1	...	19	...	28
Pupils	...	894	62	...	1922	...	2878
1953-54							
Institutions	...	8	1	...	20	...	29
Pupils	...	920	65	...	2067	...	3052
1954-55							
Institutions	...	8	1	...	18	2	29
Pupils	...	928	70	...	2141	53	3192

N. B.—The statistics include those of special institutions for the training of teachers for European or Anglo-Indian and English-teaching schools.

TRAINING INSTITUTIONS FOR WOMEN TEACHERS (1870 - 1955)



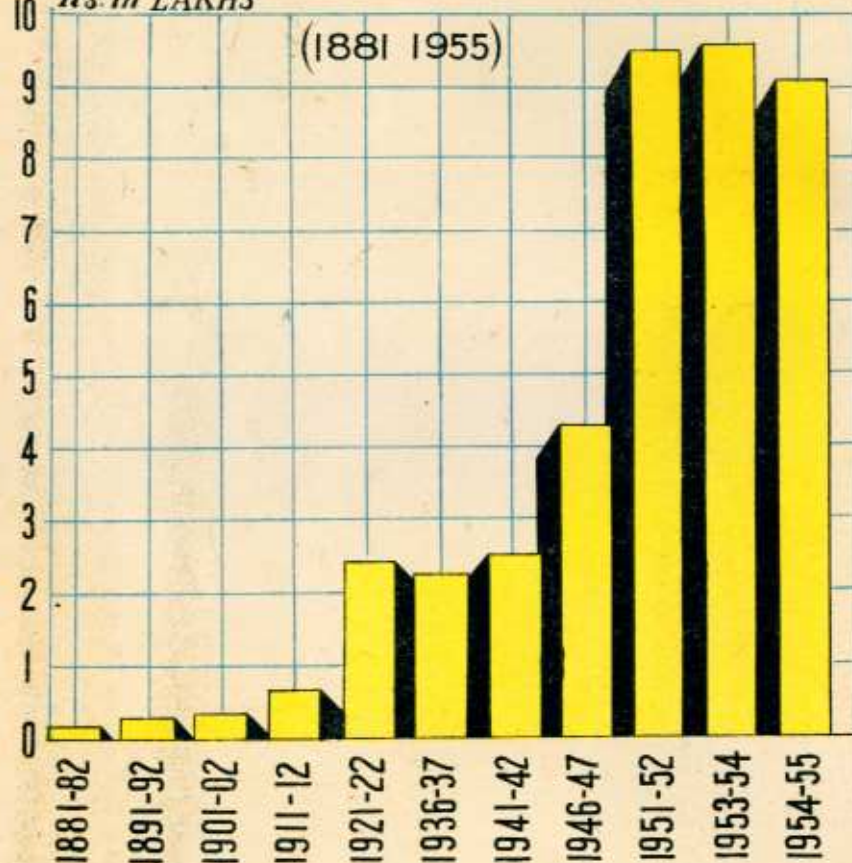
The training of women teachers generally developed on the same lines as that of men. It is, therefore, necessary to note only its special features in this brief Review. Some of these will be noticed in detail in Chapter XI which deals with the education of women and hence it would be sufficient to note here only the evolution of the syllabus of primary training institutions for women teachers and the growth of their expenditure during the last 85 years.

7 (17). *Curriculum of Primary Training Institutions for Women (1870-1955)*.—In 1870 when the first training institutions for women teachers were organised, there was such a dearth of available candidates that every woman who was willing to join was admitted and some of them had to begin their “training” with a study of the alphabet. But within a few years, it was possible to raise the admission standard to the passing of primary Standard III—a reform which, at that time, was regarded as very good progress. This change necessitated a revision of the training course which was properly organised after several vicissitudes, in 1884. According to this course, the total period of training was fixed at four years as against three for men. But owing to the low standard of admission, the training course for women primary teachers was far too elementary as comparable with that of men. It included a study of arithmetic, mother-tongue, history, geography, sewing, needle-work and education. Algebra, geometry, science and Sanskrit—which formed so important a part of the syllabus for men teachers—were conspicuous by their absence here. The next important revision was made in 1910. By this time, the standard of admission had been raised to the passing of primary Standard V and hence the revised course prescribed a more rigorous syllabus under nine heads, viz., mathematics, mothertongue, history and geography, elementary science, drawing, needle-work, singing, kindergarten, and theory and practice of teaching. By 1923, a P. S. C. Examination for girls came to be instituted at the end of primary Standard VI and it was prescribed as the admission test to training institutions as well. Consequently, a new training course spread over three years was now introduced. It added hygiene, naturestudy and physical training to the subjects of study and at the end of the course, a woman teacher had an attainment which was almost equivalent to that of men teachers at the end of the second year of their training. In 1935, the course was again revised on the same general principles as in the case of men teachers. Its key-note was an emphasis on practical work and it added geometry and modern trends in the theory of education. In 1939, an attempt was made to bring the training course for women on a par with that of men. This reform was made possible by the adoption of a common primary course for boys and girls and by the introduction, since 1948, of a common P. S. C. Examination for boys and girls alike. In 1949, therefore, a common basic syllabus was adopted for all training institutions and the principle that there should be no differentiation between the courses for the training of men and women teachers was finally accepted.

EXPENDITURE ON THE TRAINING INSTITUTIONS FOR WOMEN PRIMARY TEACHERS

IN Rs. in LAKHS

(1881-1955)



14. 02 P. PODINA, 1958

7 (18). *Expenditure*.—Statistics of expenditure on the training institutions for women primary teachers are given in the following table:—

TABLE No. 7 (7)

Expenditure on the Training Institutions for Women Primary Teachers (1881-1955)

Year.	Government Funds.				Total.	
	On Institutions under Public Management.	On Aided Institutions.	Local Board and Municipal Funds.	Other sources.		
	1	2	3	4		5
		Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
1881-82	...	15,238	...	3,354	600	19,192
1891-92	...	19,551	...	10,703	...	30,254
1901-02	...	20,446	...	8,688	2,563	31,697
1911-12	...	42,754	900	10,979	12,383	67,016
1921-22	...	1,40,290	29,311	25,904	49,706	2,45,211
1936-37	...	1,24,714	31,917	16,150	55,561	2,28,342
1941-42	...	1,34,290	44,761	12,652	64,490	2,56,193
1946-47	...	2,06,840	81,242	25,897	1,16,287	4,30,266
1951-52	...	3,42,627	2,22,989	31,110	3,55,394	9,52,120
1953-54	...	4,08,394	2,48,319	12,247	2,91,521	9,60,481
1954-55	...	4,01,576	2,33,070	11,895	2,59,126	9,05,667

A comparison of this table with that for men primary teacher given earlier viz. Table No. 7 (5), will show two striking differences. The first is the fact that the number of women teachers under training and the expenditure incurred on them has been continually increasing, except for a very small fall between 1921-22 and 1936-37 (which is due mainly to the separation of Sind). Secondly, although local bodies have now generally given up the conduct of training institutions for primary teachers the Bombay Municipality still conducts a training institution for women primary teachers.

D—TRAINING OF OTHER TEACHERS

7 (19). Arrangements for the training of several other categories of teachers have also been made in this State. Some of these have been or will be dealt with in the appropriate context in this Report. For instance, the training of teachers for basic and craft schools has already been described in Chapter IV; the arrangements made for the training of teachers in Social Education will be described in Chapter IX; the training of teachers in Physical Education will be described in Chapter XII; and the training of teachers for pre-primary schools as well as for the schools for

handicapped children will be described in Chapter XV. In this concluding Section, therefore, the training of the remaining two categories only will be described, *viz.*, (1) Hindi Teachers and (2) Drawing Teachers.

7 (20). *Training of Hindi Teachers.*—The Popular Ministry that came to power in 1937 was committed to the view that Hindustani should be ultimately introduced as the national language of India. Hence as early as in 1939, orders were passed that the teaching of Hindustani in both the Devnagari and Urdu scripts should be introduced in educational institutions. The students were expected to know only one script; but the teachers had to know both. These orders naturally created a demand for the teachers of Hindustani.

In the earlier years, the teaching of Hindustani had to be carried on with the help of such persons as knew the language although they may not have received any formal training. Government, therefore, decided that, until it was possible to train special teachers for the purpose, all persons who had passed the examinations mentioned below and who were acquainted with one of the regional languages of the State and also with the Nagari and Urdu scripts should be regarded as qualified teachers of Hindustani:—

- (1) Rashtra Bhasha Kovid of Prayag (Hindi Sahitya Sammelan);
- (2) Rashtra Bhasha Visharad of Madras;
- (3) Visharad of Allahabad;
- (4) Teachers of Training course of the Jamia Millia, Delhi; and
- (5) Diploma Examination of the Rashtra Bhasha Adhyapan Mandir, Wardha, and any other equivalent examination in Hindustani.

Government also decided that persons who had passed the Matriculation Examination with Hindi or Urdu as the second language should also be regarded as qualified teachers of Hindustani for the time being, provided they satisfied the requirements other than that of the examinations mentioned above. Government further decided that cases of Hindustani teachers not possessing the qualifications specified above but who were already employed in schools should also be considered on merits.

A State Board for Education in Hindustani was constituted in 1939 to advise Government on various matters pertaining to the teaching of Hindustani. This Board recommended that a Hindustani Shikshak Diploma should be instituted and suggested that, after April, 1941, no person should ordinarily be appointed or continued in his appointment as a Hindustani teacher unless he obtained a certificate of Hindustani in a Refresher Course of three months or the 'Hindustani Shikshak' Diploma (which was a full year's course) awarded by the State Board for Education in Hindustani. These recommendations were accepted and the necessary rules and courses of studies were prescribed by Government.

The State Board was in existence upto 1950 when it was abolished. During this period, the Board held the Diploma Examinations of which

the Educational Inspector, Bombay Division, was the Conductor. The results achieved during these years are given below:—

TABLE No. 7 (8)

Examination for the Hindustani Shikshak Diploma (1940-50)

			Full Years' Course.		Refresher Course.	
Year.		No. appeared.	No. passed.	No. appeared.	No. passed.	
1		2	3	4	5	
1940	...	32	23	199	134	
1941	...	32	18	45	38	
1942	43	29	
1943	...	10	6	37	26	
1944	...	10	7	18	14	
1945	...	10	5	76	68	
1946	...	3	...	50	42	
1947	92	79	
1948	...	6	2	182	148	
1949	...	34	26	341	245	

In 1950, Hindi in Devnagari script was adopted as the national language of the Indian Union. The Hindustani Board, was, therefore, abolished and the entire work regarding the Examination was entrusted to the Director of Education. The name of the Examination was also changed to Hindi Shikshak Sanad and only the Devnagari script was made compulsory. Necessary changes were also effected in the syllabus and the rules of the Examination to fit in with the decision of Government. The new examination is becoming popular as will be evident from the statistics of the results since 1950:—

TABLE No. 7 (9)

Hindi Teachers (1950-55)

Year.	No. Appeared.	No. Passed
1950	639	448
1951	697	457
1952	1,011	775
1953	1,390	1,009
1954	1,751	1,173
1955	1,132	731

Government has also taken steps to introduce Hindi as a compulsory subject in the training institutions for primary teachers since 1950. As a result of this policy, several institutions have come into existence since 1939 with the sole object of training Hindustani or Hindi teachers. These are being regularly aided by the Department. In 1954-55 the number of such institutions was 29.

7 (21). *Drawing Teachers' Examinations.*—The institution of the I, II and III Grade Art Examinations led to the study of drawing being introduced in the high schools which in its turn, gave rise to the problem of providing competent drawing teachers for these schools. A special class was, therefore, started in the Sir J. J. School of Arts and, subsequently, an examination for the Drawing Teachers' Certificate was also instituted. Attendance at the training class was, however, not made compulsory for those who desired to appear for the Drawing Teachers' Examination and a practice came to be subsequently introduced whereby outside candidates were also allowed to appear for the Examination. There was an inherent defect in this system which made it difficult to determine the fitness of candidates for the post of drawing teachers and hence it was decided, under the reorganisation scheme of 1915, that every candidate for the Drawing Teachers' Certificate Examination should be required to attend one full session of a normal class at the Sir J. J. School of Arts, that the old Drawing Teachers' Certificate Examination should be improved and brought into line with instruction to be given in the normal class, and that instead of one examination, there should be three examinations for the following certificates:—

(i) Drawing Teachers' Certificate.

(ii) Drawing Masters' Certificate.

(iii) Art Masters' Certificate.

It was also decided that a candidate seeking admission to the Drawing Masters' Examination must have passed the Drawing Teachers' Certificate Examination and served for a period of 4 years in a secondary school or primary training institution after obtaining that certificate and produced the required number of testimonies of study to the satisfaction of the panel of judges appointed for the purpose; that a candidate seeking admission to the Art Masters' Examination must have either passed the Drawing Masters' Examination and produced the required number of testimonies of study to the satisfaction of the judges or must have studied for four years at the Sir J. J. School of Arts, and have passed the Advanced Examination in Drawing and Painting, Modelling or Architecture, and must have further served for one year as a drawing teacher in a recognised secondary school or held pupil-teachership for one year at the Sir J. J. School of Arts. Moreover, under the same scheme, a minimum educational qualification for admission to drawing teachers' training class was also laid down, and the status, pay and prospects of drawing teachers in Government service were decided. The two categories, viz., Drawing Teachers and Drawing Masters were primarily meant for secondary schools and training institutions, with a separate scale of pay

for each category. Art Masters, although originally employed exclusively in the School of Art or in charge of special drawing schools are now being given preference in Government service for posts of drawing teachers in secondary schools.

The demand for trained and qualified drawing teachers increased as Art Education progressed. There was, however, only one normal class for training drawing teachers at Sir J. J. School of Arts till 1950 admission to this class being limited to 40 or 45 and it could not adequately cater to the needs of secondary schools in the State. The merger of Indian States made a considerable addition to the number of secondary schools and the shortage of qualified drawing teachers became still more acute. To solve this problem, Government sanctioned, in 1950, the opening of a normal class at the Institute of Modern Art, Poona, with an annual grant-in-aid on a prescribed percentage basis. The total admissions to this class have been fixed at 40. Immediately in the following year, similar classes were sanctioned at the School of Art, Dharwar, and at the Kala Vidyalyaya, Sheth C. N. Vidyavihar, Ahmedabad, with a strength of 25 and 40 respectively. There are in all four training centres at present—in Bombay, Poona, Ahmedabad, and Dharwar—which serve the needs of their respective regions. New subjects of pedagogy, art appreciation and psychology have been introduced in these classes and due provision for practice lessons is also made.

Statistical information in respect of the Art Teachers' Examinations is given below:—

TABLE No. 7 (10)
Results of the Art Teachers' Examinations (1916-17 to 1954-55)

Year.	Drawing Teachers' Examination.			Drawing Masters' Examination.			Art Masters' Examination.			
	No. appeared.	No. passed.	Percentage of passes.	No. appeared.	No. passed.	Percentage of passes.	No. appeared.	No. passed.	Percentage of passes.	
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	
1916-17	...	27	16	59.3	8	4	50.0	12	6	50.0
1921-22	...	27	15	55.6	5	2	40.0	1	...	0.0
1926-27	...	41	14	34.1	2	1	50.0	3	2	66.7
1931-32	...	34	26	76.5	8	6	75.0	3	3	100.0
1936-37	...	46	33	71.7	5	3	60.0	8	3	37.5
1941-42	...	54	45	83.3	9	5	55.6	8	4	50.0
1946-47	...	48	39	81.2	4	4	100.0	16	9	56.2
1951-52	...	101	85	84.2	19	14	73.7	42	21	50.0
1953-54	...	155	124	80.0	13	11	83.1	40	13	45.0
1954-55	...	159	142	89.3	26	13	50.0	37	16	43.2

CHAPTER VIII

PROFESSIONAL AND SPECIAL EDUCATION

The facilities provided for Professional and Special Education in this State can be conveniently considered under the following main heads:—

- (1) Medical Education;
- (2) Commercial Education;
- (3) Legal Education;
- (4) Agricultural Education;
- (5) Education in Veterinary Science and Forestry;
- (6) Engineering, Technical and Industrial Education; and
- (7) Colleges and Schools for Special Education.

The Training of Teachers and Education in Fine Arts can also be regarded as branches of Professional and Special Education. The first of these has already been dealt with in Chapter VII and the second will be dealt with in Chapter XV. This Chapter will, therefore, deal only with seven categories mentioned above.

I Medical Education

8 (2). *Medical Education (1845-61).*—The pioneer institution which laid the foundation of Medical Education in the State is the Grant Medical College, Bombay. Sir Robert Grant, the then Governor of Bombay, was keenly interested in the development of Modern Medical Education and in introducing the Indian public to the Western system of medical diagnosis and treatment. As early as in 1837, he called for information regarding the system of 'Native Medical Education' and 'the condition of native medical practice in the several districts' and requested all Government medical officers to report 'whether there exist prejudices likely to operate as an obstacle to the introduction of a better system.* On the basis of the information received, Sir Robert concluded that the indigenous system of medicine was not worthy of encouragement and that Indians would welcome the introduction of the Western system which was obviously better and more efficient. He, therefore, drew up a scheme for the establishment of a medical college at Bombay. The main object which Sir Robert had in view was to provide for "the education of the natives of this Presidency in medical science, to the extent of qualifying them to become useful and safe practitioners of medicine."† He was not at all particular about training assistants to work in Government hospitals and dispensaries. But he recommended that the best qualified students of the college should be preferably rewarded by appointment in the Medical Department because "it must be for the advantage of Government to employ native medical men, supposing them to be duly qualified, and greatly to the benefit of the student after his course of study is finished, whatever his ultimate use may be, that he should hold employment in the public service, for a time, as a school in which he may acquire experience in practice."† Unfortunately Sir Robert died at Dapuri in the Poona District on 9th July, 1838 before his proposals could be finalised.

* Selections from Education Records, Volume II, p. 335.

† Report of the Director of Public Instruction, Bombay, 1861-62, p. 23.

The scheme, however, did not receive a set-back. The public of Bombay collected funds to commemorate the memory of Sir Robert by establishing a medical college and the Court of Directors approved of the proposals and directed the establishment of a medical school at Bombay to be called "The Grant Medical College." The foundation stone of the building was laid in 1845 and the first session of the College began in June, 1846.

In the first fifteen years of its life, the College made considerable progress. With a munificent donation of rupees one lakh made by Sir Jamshetji Jeejeebhoy, the College was provided with a "school of practice" in 1845. This "school of practice", which was designated as the Sir Jamshetji Jeejeebhoy Hospital, has since developed into one of the best hospitals in the State. By 1853 the college staff was strengthened by the appointment of Professors of Midwifery, Medical Jurisprudence, Materia Medica, Anatomy and Physiology, and Ophthalmic Surgery. In 1854, the College received recognition from the Royal College of Surgeons of England as one of its affiliated schools for medical instruction. In 1859, it was affiliated to the University of Bombay and in 1862 the Degree of Licentiate of Medicine (or L. M.) was awarded for the first time.

Between 1846 and 1861, therefore, the College showed improvements in several directions. Government was incurring a very large expenditure on its maintenance; the qualifications of its teaching staff had been very largely improved; and the standard of instruction provided had also been materially raised. But the medical course was not becoming popular with the public in spite of the fact that Government had instituted a large number of stipends with the object of attracting students. This was mainly due to the fact that the higher castes among the Hindus had a traditional prejudice against the medical profession and superstitious objections to dissecting a human body. Prior to 1859, the College held its own entrance examination for the admission of students. But when the Bombay University instituted the Matriculation Examination, a rule was laid down that only those students who had passed the Matriculation would be admitted to the College. This had a still further adverse effect upon enrolment because, at this time, only a few students passed the Matriculation Examination every year and a very small proportion of these sought admission to the medical course. Prior to 1861, therefore, the total number of students in the college was very small and entirely out of proportion to the expenditure incurred on its maintenance.

8 (3). *Medical Education (1861-1911).*—During the next fifty years, the Grant Medical College made considerable progress. The earlier prejudice against the medical profession and dissection of human bodies began to disappear when the public saw that medical graduates were either earning a good living by private practice or were obtaining good jobs in the Government Medical Department. The public also became increasingly familiar with the Western system of medicine through the large number of Government hospitals and dispensaries that came to be organised during this period. The prejudice against the Western system began therefore, to die out very rapidly and, in consequence, a demand for private practitioners of Western medicine was soon created which, in its turn, led to an increased enrolment in the medical college and schools.

By 1881-82, the enrolment in the College ceased to be a problem. Thereafter, the number of applicants to the medical college increased rapidly year after year and the College never felt a shortage of students. With the turn of the century, even a competition for admission had set in and the college authorities were required to reject several applications every year. In 1910-11, the total enrolment in the College had increased to 564 (all departments included).

An experiment carried out in the College during this period is of great interest to the students of the history of Medical Education in India. As stated above, the College was not able to attract a large number of students who were sufficiently educated to follow a course of lectures in English. It was, therefore, decided to start medical classes through the medium of modern Indian languages. Classes teaching through Marathi and Gujarati were thus started and proved to be extremely popular. Several English books of medical science were translated into Marathi and Gujarati for the use of the classes and prominent citizens of Bombay endowed scholarships for translating them. Had this experiment been kept up, it would have been possible, by now, to develop a good system of Medical Education through the media of modern Indian languages. But, unfortunately, it was not properly developed and was abandoned as soon as a sufficient number of matriculated students began to be available to fill the college classes. In the early years of this century, therefore, the college again became an institution which imparted education solely through the medium of English.

Another important development of this period was the entry of women students into the modern medical profession. Several attempts were made to induce women students to join the College. A large number of stipends was instituted; and as a sufficient number of women educated in English was not available, classes teaching through the medium of modern Indian languages were organised for a time. These policies began to have their own effect and women began to enter the profession of nursing and midwifery (on Western lines). They also began to proceed to the degree in medicine in ever increasing numbers and in 1910-11 there were as many as 29 girls reading in the degree courses of the college.

The third important event of this period was the establishment of medical schools. As the number of hospitals conducted by Government began to increase, there was a demand for a large number of "hospital assistants." It was felt that these persons need not be so highly educated as the degree course of the Bombay University and a suggestion was, therefore, put forward that *medical schools* should be established in different parts of the State. This plan was approved by Government and accordingly four medical schools were established at Poona, Ahmedabad and Hyderabad (Sind). In Poona and Ahmedabad a single school was established and admission was thrown open to boys and girls alike. But in Hyderabad, two schools had to be established—one for boys and the other for girls. These institutions taught a slightly inferior course and trained persons for appointment as sub-assistant surgeons in Government hospitals. In 1910-11 these medical schools had a total enrolment of 312 students of whom 7 were girls.

In the early years, the institutions of Medical Education were under the control of the Director of Education. When the Medical Department was established under Government, these institutions began to be under the joint control of the Director of Public Instruction and the Surgeon-General with the Government of Bombay. In 1910-11, the Grant Medical College and the medical schools were placed under the sole control of the Surgeon-General with the Government of Bombay.

8 (4). *Medical Education (1911-37).*—The main event of this period was the great improvement made in the standard of Medical Education. The University of Bombay discontinued the old degree of L. M. & S. and instituted a new degree of M.B.B.S. in 1906-07. Under this scheme, the admission standard to the medical course was raised to the passing of the First Year Examination at the college and the medical course itself was spread over five years. But even this reform soon became out of date and hence revised regulations intended to satisfy the requirements of the British Medical Council were introduced in 1923. Under these regulations the standard of admission to the medical course was raised to the Intermediate Science Examination (Group B) and students were required to do three years' hospital work instead of two as formerly. In spite of this revision, the question of a thorough revision of the whole medical course again engaged the attention of the University with the result that new regulations were put into effect in 1928-29. One distinctive feature of these new regulations was that it provided for three university examinations whereas the regulations of 1923 had provided for only two. Moreover, the completing of 20 labour cases was also made a condition precedent to appearing for the M. B. B. S. Examination. On the whole, it may be said that the standard of Medical Education at the collegiate level was raised very considerably during this period.

These developments at the collegiate level naturally had their reactions on the medical schools also. Prior to 1912, the medical schools had only a three years' course and they gave admission to students who had not passed the Matriculation Examination. Now the duration of the course in the medical schools was raised to four years and it was laid down that those who had passed the Matriculation or any higher Examination would be preferred while making admissions. From 1920, the passing of the Matriculation was regarded as the minimum condition for the admission of men students although some latitude continued to be given to women students for a few years. From 1913, the medical schools began to send their candidates to the L. C. P. S. Examination (Licentiate of the College of Physicians and Surgeons). It may, therefore, be said that the standard of Medical Education provided in the schools was also raised very greatly during this period as a result of the improvements carried out at the collegiate level.

The facilities available for Medical Education were considerably increased during this period. In 1925, the Bombay Municipality established the *G. S. Medical College* in collaboration with the K. E. M. Hospital. In 1936-37, therefore, there were two medical colleges in the State with a total enrolment of 790 students of whom 140 were girls. In so far as the medical schools are concerned, a new institution called the *National*

Medical College was established in Bombay in 1921. It was a medical school and prepared candidates for the L. C. P. S. course. But owing to the separation of Sind, the two institutions in Hyderabad were eliminated so that, in 1936-37, there were only three medical schools in the State with an enrolment of 850 pupils of whom 128 were girls.

8 (5). *Medical Education (1937-55)*.—With the coming in of the Popular Ministry in 1937, there was a great expansion of Medical Education in the State.

The indigenous system of medicine, both Unani and Ayurvedic, had been entirely neglected by Government until 1937. The Popular Ministry was of the opinion that both these systems of medicine deserved encouragement from the State. Accordingly, special legislation was passed to regularise the practice of these systems of medicine and recognition and grant-in-aid were offered to schools and colleges which were imparting instruction on Unani and Ayurvedic lines. Consequently, six Ayurvedic colleges came into existence during this period.

In so far as the Western system of medicine is concerned, a large number of revolutionary changes were introduced in this period. In 1946, Government raised the medical schools in Poona and Ahmedabad to the status of colleges so that the number of medical colleges conducted by Government increased to three. The Bombay Municipality took over the National Medical College—it is now called the Topivala National Medical College on account of a munificent donation given by Shri Motiram N. Desai, Topivala—and also raised it to the status of a college. The number of medical colleges conducted by the Bombay Municipality increased, therefore, to two. Moreover, the Maharaja Sayajirao University, Baroda, also raised the local medical school to the status of a college in 1949. Besides two new colleges of dental science were established in Bombay—the Nair Hospital Dental College conducted by the Bombay Municipality and the Sir Currimbhoy Ebrahim Memorial Dental College conducted by Government—and a College of Pharmacy, the first of its type, was established in Ahmedabad in 1947.

The medical courses were again revised during this period. The inferior courses that used to be taught in medical schools were done away with and only one common course of a high standard was prescribed at the college level.

In 1954-55, the total number of medical colleges stood at 15—6 colleges of Western system of medicine, 2 Dental Colleges, 1 College of Pharmacy and 6 Ayurvedic Colleges. The following table shows the position of these institutions as on 31st March, 1955:—

One point deserves special notice. Out of the six colleges of medicines in the State as a whole, 2 are conducted by the Bombay Municipality. It also conducts one dental college out of a total of two in the State. This local body has large resources and it also conducts a number of good hospitals. It is, therefore, in a unique position to provide facilities for higher Medical Education and it speaks volumes for its sense of national duty that it is making such a large provision for the higher Medical Education of the youth of the country.

8 (6). *Nursing and Midwifery Schools*.—In addition to the medical colleges which have been described earlier, there are a large number of nursing and midwifery schools conducted by various organisation in this State. They are all attached to the important hospitals. In 1954-55, there were 51 such schools with a total enrolment of 1,822. Their total expenditure in that year was Rs. 8,92,699 of which Rs. 4,89,388 came from Government funds, Rs. 1,70,684 from Municipal funds, Rs. 38,121 from fees and Rs. 1,94,508 from other sources.

II Commercial Education

8 (7). *The Sydenham College of Commerce and Economics*.—Commercial Education at the collegiate level began with the establishment of the Sydenham College of Commerce and Economics, Bombay, in 1913.

This institution which was founded on 22nd October, 1913, under the name of the "Government College of Commerce" owes its existence to (1) the public-spirited attempts of Shri K. S. Aiyar who had for years been indetified with the advocacy of the claims of Higher Commercial Education in the State and who was appointed as its first "interim honorary Principal" pending the recruitment of the permanent incumbent in England and (2) to the generous donations given by Sir Jugmohandas Virjivandas (Rs. 2,25,000), Sir Chinubhai Madhavlal, first Baronet (Rs. 1,00,000), and N. M. Wadia Charities (securities with an annual income of Rs. 4,500). It was given its present name in 1916 when the Government of Bombay later accepted another donation of Rs. 1,85,000 offered by the Sydenham Memorial Committee and agreed to name the College after Lord Sydenham, the Governor of Bombay, who had evinced a very keen interest in Commercial Education.

During the last forty years the progress of the College has been phenomenal. Almost continually migrating from one building to the other until 1954, it has now been provided with a spacious building of its own on the Churchgate Reclamation Area. Its enrolment has increased from about 100 in 1913 to 222 in 1921, 415 in 1937 and 1,286 in 1954-55; and its staff has increased from 4 full-time and 4 part-time instructors in 1917 to 21 gazetted and 27 non-gazetted officers in 1954-55. Its library which contains more than 17,000 books and an almost equal number of reports,

magazines, etc. ranks among the few leading libraries on economics in this country. Throughout its life of 42 years, therefore, the College has retained its role as the premier institution of Commercial Education in this State and as one of the important colleges of Commercial Education in the whole of India.

The outstanding feature of this college is its extramural service to the business community and its contribution to the development of Commercial Education at the secondary level. Right from its establishment in 1913, the College has tried to maintain close contact with business interests and to encourage extramural activities. Until 1934, this college was the only one of its type in the whole of India and it was, therefore, entrusted with the conduct of the All India G. D. A. Examination (Government Diploma in Accountancy) and its Principal was appointed the ex-officio Secretary of the Accountancy Diploma Board. In 1926-27, the G. C. D. and C. Examinations (Government Commercial Diploma and Certificate Examinations) were instituted and their conduct was entrusted to the College whose Principal was appointed ex-officio *Inspector of Commercial Schools*. In 1938, the Government Diploma in Secretarial Practice and Accountancy was introduced and evening classes for it were organised at the college. In the following year, the scheme of commercial high schools was approved by Government and the Principal of the College was entrusted with the task of inspecting and guiding them. Since 1948, he is also working as an ex-officio member of the S. S. C. Examination Board. The following table shows the growth of these extramural activities of the College since 1927:—

TABLE NO. 8 (2)

Commercial Examinations

Year.	Government Commercial Diploma and Certificate Examinations.			Government Diploma in Secretarial Practice and Accountancy (Students)	Commercial High Schools.
	Classes.	Candidates.	Centres.		
1	2	3	4	5	6
1926-27	...	5	41	2	...
1932-33	...	7	41	2	...
1937-38	...	13	263	3	37
1942-43	...	24	388	3	45
1947-48	...	37	589	8	113
1953-54	...	139	3,723	12	430
1954-55	...	152	5,891	12	228

When the College was established in 1913, it provided a three year course leading to the B. Com. Degree of the Bombay University and only those students who passed the First Year Examination in Arts were admitted to it. In 1938, however, the course for the B. Com. Degree was spread over four years and students were admitted to the College immediately on passing the Matriculation Examination—a practice which continues to this day. The present course for the B. Com. Degree provides a large number of options and is very popular with the students because the holders of this degree find ready employment in the expanding sphere of Indian banking and business.

8 (8). *Other Colleges of Commerce.*—Up to 1936, the Sydenham College of Commerce and Economics, Bombay, was the only College of Commercial Education in this State. In June of that year, the H. L. College of Commerce was started at Ahmedabad and affiliated to the University of Bombay. Since then, Commercial Education has expanded very rapidly, and during the last nineteen years, as many as nine additional colleges of commerce have been established in the State. The table on the next page shows the position of all the eleven commerce colleges in the State as on 31st March, 1955:—

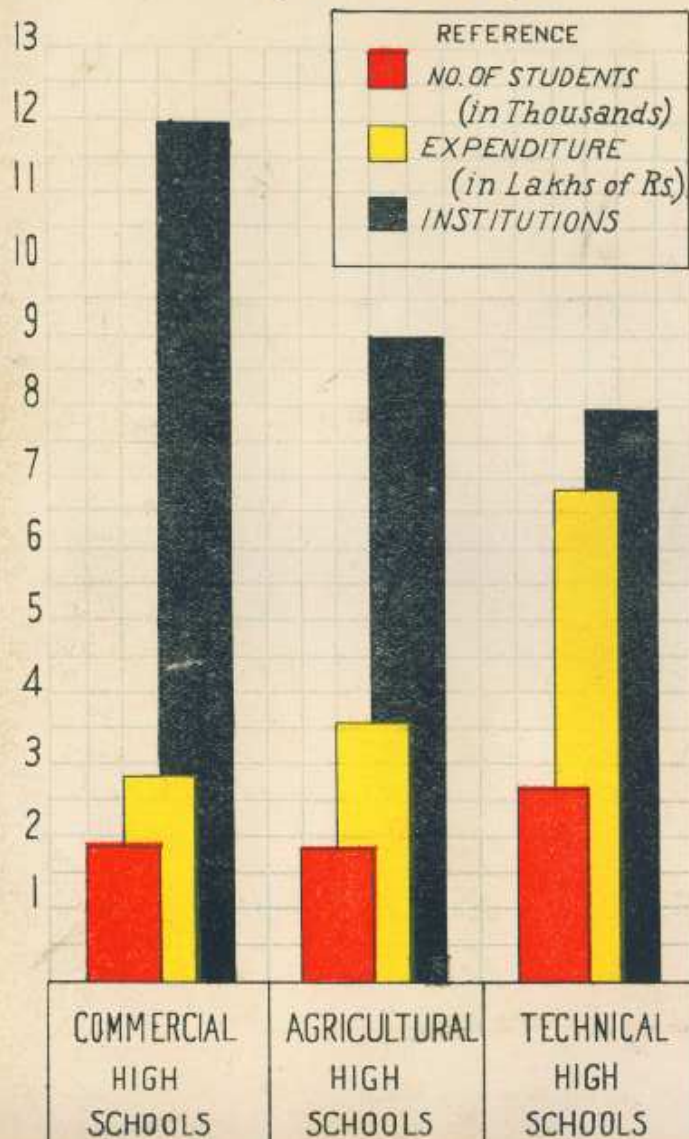
TABLE No. 8 (3)

Commerce Colleges (31st March, 1955)

Sr. No.	Name of the College.	Year of establishment.	No. of Students on 31-3-1956.			Total Direct Expenditure from				
			Boys.	Girls.	Total.	State Government Funds.	Fees.	Other Sources.	Total.	
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	
1	Sydenham College of Commerce and Economics, Bombay.	1913	1,283	143	1,376	Rs. ...	Rs. 2,30,194	Rs. 22,944	Rs. 2,53,138	
2	H. L. College of Commerce, Ahmedabad	1936	1,139	2	1,141	...	1,50,473	..	1,50,473	
3	R. A. Podar College of Commerce and Economics ... Bombay.	1941	1,196	23	1,159	...	2,45,011	..	2,45,011	
4	Faculty of Commerce, M. S. University, Baroda.	1942	214	3	217	...	44,605	32,517	77,122	
5	Brihan Maharashtra College of Commerce, Poona ...	1943	867	20	887	3,439	1,67,293	19,159	1,89,888	
6	Sir K. P. College of Commerce, Surat	1946	545	12	557	...	96,560	..	96,560	
7	J. G. College of Commerce, Hubli	1947	250	0	250	4,289	40,266	25,982	70,537	
8	Bhikhabhai Jivabhai Vaniya Mahavidyalaya, Vallabh Vidyanagar	1951	157	2	159	15,546	31,378	30,528	77,452	
9	Dayanand College of Commerce, Sholapur	1952	175	1	176	8,814	88,140	8,132	50,086	
10	Siddharth College of Commerce and Economics Bom.	1953	354	14	368	6,578	58,595	..	65,173	
11	K. L. E. Society's College of Commerce, Belgaum ...	1954	90	...	90	5,000	20,773	11,850	87,623	
	Total ...		6,160	220	6,380	43,666	11,23,285	1,46,112	13,13,063	

8 (9). *Commercial High Schools*.—As stated earlier in Chapter V, the idea of diversifying the secondary school course and of establishing commercial high schools was taken up, for the first time, by the Popular Ministry, which came to office in 1937. Under the scheme then formulated, some of the Government high schools were converted into commercial high schools and liberal grants were offered to such private schools as would provide for the teaching of commercial subjects. During the last 18 years, therefore, a good deal of progress has been made in this field. On 31st March, 1955, there were 12 commercial high schools in the State of which 3 were conducted by Government and 9 by private enterprise. The details about these high schools as on 31st March, 1955 are given in the table on the next page:—

Category	No. of Students (in Thousands)	Expenditure (in Lakhs of Rs)	Institutions
COMMERCIAL HIGH SCHOOLS	1.8	2.7	1.9
AGRICULTURAL HIGH SCHOOLS	1.7	3.4	2.8
TECHNICAL HIGH SCHOOLS	2.5	6.6	7.8



L—S 1338—21

Sr. No.	Name of the High School.	Year of establishment.	No. of pupils.	Total Direct Expenditure from			
				State Government Funds.	Fees.	Other Sources.	Total Expenditure.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
	<i>Government.</i>						
1	B. J. High School of Commerce, Thana	1880	248	Rs. 45,808	Rs. 9,036	Rs. 1,312	Rs. 56,741
2	R. C. High School of Commerce, Ahmedabad	1846	527	29,155	25,215	4,412	58,812
3	Baroda High School (Commerce Section), Baroda	1871	19	14,780	1,156	...	15,936
	Total Government	...	788	89,768	35,997	5,734	1,31,489
	<i>Non-Government</i>						
1	Anjuman-i-Islam Jan Mohamad Cassum High School of Commerce, Bombay.	1942	148	10,638	17,082	122	27,833
2	Anjuman-i-Islam Jan Mohamad Night High School of Commerce, Bombay.	1944	88	2,338	5,350	...	8,288
3	P. R. High School of Commerce, Ghatkopar, Bombay	1943	197	9,716	16,884	...	26,600
4	Ranjoo Moosa High School of Commerce, Poona	1963	37	585	1,917	3,287	5,739
5	Poona High School of Commerce, Poona City	1946	17	3,485	1,841	877	6,153
6	R. S. High School of Commerce, Sholapur	1941	94	7,031	6,319	2,044	15,394
7	Warad High School of Commerce, Sholapur	1945	66	4,881	3,289	4,151	12,321
8	Seth R. N. J. High School of Commerce, Navsari	1950	118	7,654	8,307	3,384	19,345
9	Beynon Smith High School of Commerce, Belgaum	1945	271	9,978	14,554	659	25,191
	Total (Non-Government)	...	1,086	56,791	75,543	14,734	1,47,068
	Grant Total	...	1,824	1,46,559	1,11,540	20,448	2,78,547

8 (10). *Commercial Schools*.—As Commercial Education began late, there were only three commercial schools with 109 pupils in 1901-02. One of these was conducted by the Sholapur Municipality. The other two were located in Bombay—a night class conducted by Shri K. S. Aiyar and a commercial class attached to the B. J. Parsi Charitable Institute. None of these institutions was aided by Government, nor were they either popular or efficient.

In the drive for educational reconstruction which began in the early years of this century, the expansion of Commercial Education in general and that at the secondary level in particular began to receive greater attention. The Department began to conduct the Senior and Junior Certificate Examinations of the London Chamber of Commerce from 1901; and grants-in-aid were also instituted for commercial schools. But in spite of these attempts, not much progress was made until 1911-12 when there were only 7 commercial schools with an enrolment of 321. Of these, only two were aided by Government.

With the establishment of the Sydenham College of Commerce and Economics, Bombay, in 1913, the cause of Commercial Education at the secondary level began to prosper, partly because the foundation of the college helped to make Commercial Education popular and partly because it began to supply the trained personnel required for the conduct of the commercial schools. In 1916-17, therefore, the number of commercial schools rose suddenly to 42 with an enrolment of 1,927. In 1954-55, this number has increased still further to 152 commercial schools with an enrolment of 15,759 pupils. The table on the next page shows the number of commercial schools along with enrolment and expenditure by sources from 1901-02:—

TABLE No. 8 (5)

Commercial Classes and Schools (1901-55)

Total Expenditure on Commercial Schools met from								
Year.	No. of Commercial Schools.	No. of Pupils.	State Funds.	Municipal Funds.	Fees.	Other Sources.	Total.	
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	
			Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	
1901-02	3	109	593	7	5,465	4,364	10,429	
1906-07	4	144	574	732	4,420	4,498	10,224	
1911-12	7	321	4,243	544	9,147	3,585	17,519	
1916-17	42	1,927	6,286	1507	50,145	16,613	74,551	
1921-22	39	1,943	11,555	...	38,047	52,967	1,02,569	
1926-27	34	1,829	6,261	2,750	1,06,396	26,165	1,41,572	
1931-32	34	2,012	3,484	250	1,14,466	16,087	1,34,287	
1936-37	29	1,842	4,334	...	96,548	14,082	1,14,964	
1941-42	31	1,545	3,975	310	1,10,227	16,183	1,30,695	
1946-47	35	3,160	4,465	...	1,63,823	20,446	1,88,734	
1951-52	98	8,074	5,187	...	3,79,845	24,542	4,09,574	
1953-54	136	13,907	8,644	...	3,42,520	49,172	4,00,336	
1954-55	152	15,759	10,781	...	5,10,065	28,422	5,49,268	

8 (11). *Inspectorate for Commercial Schools*.—Prior to 1926, there was no special Inspectorate for Commercial Schools mainly because the number of such institutions was too small to justify its creation. But, as stated earlier, the number of commercial schools increased very largely after the establishment of the Sydenham College of Commerce and Economics. Consequently, the need of creating a special Inspectorate for Commercial Schools began to be felt very keenly. Government, therefore, created a post of the *Inspector of Commercial Schools* in 1926 and the Principal of the Sydenham College of Commerce and Economics, Bombay, was directed to hold it *ex-officio*. The need for this measure has been explained in the following words by Mr. M. L. Tannan, the first Inspector of Commercial Schools:—

“Several decades before Bombay gave the lead to other provinces in higher commercial education, Madras had already put secondary commercial education on a sound footing. In the Bombay Presidency, commercial education of a scholastic type was left entirely in the hands of private institutions, most of which were run by persons whose only qualification was that they had passed the L. C. C. Examination in one or two commercial subjects. No doubt the conduct of the L. C. C. Examination in this Presidency was entrusted to the Director of Public Instruction in 1901, but there was hardly any proper inspection of the institutions preparing students for the L. C. C. Examination, as the inspection work was in the hands of the Educational Inspectors, and the Deputy Educational Inspectors, most of whom did not know any commercial subject. Early in 1926, this work was entrusted to the Principal of the Sydenham College of Commerce and Economics, Bombay, who at present is working as the Inspector of Commercial Schools in the Presidency.”*

8 (12). *Commercial Examinations*.—It has been stated earlier that the Department began to conduct the examinations of the London Chamber of Commerce in 1901. This practice is still continued.

In the beginning, there were only two examinations—Senior and Junior. Later on three examinations were introduced Higher, Certificate and Elementary. Until about 1940 a fairly large number of candidates used to appear for these examinations; but recently the number has greatly diminished. In 1940, 776 candidates appeared for the Higher Examination, 212 for the Certificate Examination and 74 for the Elementary Examination. In 1955, these numbers stood at 146, 179 and 119 respectively.

The Department soon noticed that the examinations of London Chamber of Commerce were not suited to Indian requirements. It, therefore, introduced a new series of examinations called *Government Commercial Diploma and Certificate Examinations* in 1926-27. The syllabus for these examinations was prepared in consultation with the Indian business community and their object was to meet the demand of students who could not afford the expense and strain of the Commercial Education of university standard, but who wished to acquire training which would qualify them for clerical appointments in the service of Government, local bodies or commercial firms. Formerly, these examinations used to

*Report of the Director of Public Instruction, Bombay, 1926-27, pp. 117-118.

be held in the month of April only. Since 1950, the Government Commercial Certificate Examinations are also being held in the month of October for the convenience of students. These examinations have been very popular and their statistics have already been given earlier in Table 8 (2).

III Legal Education

8 (13). *Government Law College, Bombay*.—The beginnings of Legal Education in the State go back to the year 1855 when the *Perry Professorship of Jurisprudence* was instituted in the Elphinstone College,* to commemorate the memory of Sir Erskine Perry, the Chief Justice of Bombay, who was also the President of the Board of Education from 1843 to 1852. The course of Legal Education was then spread over three years and admission was open to any student who had a sufficient knowledge of English to enable him to follow the lectures. In the beginning, the entire course was managed by one professor; but in 1856, an additional post of a professor was sanctioned. The law classes which thus made a humble beginning in 1855 were designated as the “Government Law School” by 1857 and it was affiliated to the University of Bombay in 1860.

Ever since 1855, this institution has produced a large number of persons who have distinguished themselves in the legal profession, on the Bench, in politics and in other spheres of life. It may, therefore, be regarded as the premier institution for Legal Education, not only in the State of Bombay, but in the whole of India.

The history of the College since 1860 when it was first affiliated to the University of Bombay to the year under report falls roughly into three distinct periods: (1) 1861 to 1921; (2) 1921 to 1952; and (3) 1952 to 1955.

During the first period which extends from 1861 to 1921, the Government Law School, Bombay, was the only institution of its type. It is true that during this period law classes were started in some other institutions for a time. But they never achieved either permanence or popularity, and it would, therefore, be correct to say that the Government Law

*The following quotation from the History of the Government Law College, Bombay, compiled by Mr. R. B. Karve, ex-Registrar of the College, describes the origin of this institution:

“On 9th November 1852, a meeting was called of gentlemen of the major communities of Bombay to consider the best methods of expressing the feeling of the native community on the eve of the departure from India of the Hon'ble Sir Erskine Perry, the Chief Justice of the Supreme Court in Bombay. Raosaheb Jaggannath Sunkersett, C. I. E., the famous Indian of those days, presided at the meeting and it was resolved that, to commemorate the memory of Sir Erskine Perry, contributions should be raised with a view to founding a Professorship of Jurisprudence in the Elphinstone Institution. This Professorship was to be designated as “Perry Professorship of Jurisprudence.”

Accordingly, representations were made to the Government of Bombay, and on the 17th of March 1855, the Governor-in-Council approved of the founding of such a Professorship. On a reference made by the Government of Bombay to the Government of India, the latter in July 1855, approved of the institution in the Elphinstone College of a Chair of a Lecturer of Jurisprudence and the grant allowance from the Government sufficient to make up the salary of the professor upto Rs. 500 per month—*Report of the Legal Education Committee, 1949, p. 7.*

College, Bombay, was the main, if not the exclusive, institution of Legal Education in the State till 1921. An idea of the increase in the strength of the College as well as of the changes in the syllabus of Legal Education carried out during this period can be had from the following brief notes:—

(a) Prior to 1861, admission to the School was open even to non-matriculantes; but from 1861, only matriculantes were eligible for admission. A student was permitted, however, to keep terms for all the three years of the law course *concurrently* with the arts' course, but a degree in law could not be had until two years after B. A. or B. Sc. In 1889, it was laid down that only one year of the law course could be completed concurrently with the arts' course. In 1908, the duration of the law course was reduced to *two* years, but admission was open only to those who passed the B.A. or B.Sc. Examination.*

(b) Till 1889, there was only one examination in law. Then two examinations were introduced, one of which could be taken at the undergraduate stage and the other was to be taken only when four terms had passed after graduation in arts or science. In 1909, two examinations—the First and Second LL. B.—were introduced.

(c) Throughout this period the teaching in the College was part-time—six hours per week.† The classes were held in the evening or in the morning.

(d) The LL.M. Degree was introduced in 1906.

(e) The strength increased very rapidly in course of time as the legal profession grew in popularity. In 1855, the enrolment was 46; in 1881-82 it rose to 136; and in 1901-02, it was 314; and in 1921-22 it rose to 740.

The main events in the life of the College during the second period of its history which extends from 1921 to 1952 may be briefly stated as follows:—

(a) A Legal Education Committee was appointed in 1935 to examine the problem of Legal Education in the State and, as a result of its recommendations, several revolutionary changes were introduced.

(b) The College now became a full-time institution and admission to the LL. B. course was thrown open to those who had passed the I. A., I. S., or I. Com. Examinations.

(c) A spacious building was constructed for the College near the Churchgate Railway Station, Bombay.

(d) Prior to 1938, persons who had passed the LL.B. Degree were admitted to practice without being required to undergo a further examination. In 1938, however, a new Bar Council Examination was introduced and persons who had passed the LL.B. Examination were required to appear at and pass this Examination before being allowed to practice. It had only two papers and was held twice a year in August and February; and as no terms were prescribed for it, persons

* This privilege was later extended to students who had passed the B. Com. Examination also (1931).

† This was raised to 8 hours per week in 1932.

who passed the LL. B. Examination in June usually appeared for it in the August following and were then admitted to practice.

(e) Owing to the establishment of other colleges in the State, the strength of the College was reduced for a time. But it increased again and in 1951-52, the College had a total enrolment of 847.

In 1949, Government appointed a Committee under the Chairmanship of Shri M. C. Chagla, Chief Justice of Bombay, to report on the reorganisation of Legal Education in the State. This Committee recommended a radical reorganisation of the law course and, with the acceptance of its recommendation in 1952, the third period in the history of the College may be said to have started. Its main events may be summarised as follows:—

(a) The duration of the law course was now spread over three years for those who had passed the I.A., or I.Com., or B.Sc. Examinations. Such candidates had to pass a preliminary examination at the end of the first year before they could be admitted to the first LL. B. class. This examination is known as the Law Preliminary Examination.*

(b) Graduates in arts and commerce were, however, admitted straight to the first LL. B. class and the duration of the course was spread over two years only for them.†

(c) Some of the subjects, particularly the procedural ones were removed from the LL. B. syllabus and included in that of the Bar Council Examination. Consequently, the number of papers in the Bar Council Examination was raised from two to five. It was further laid down that it should be taken at the end of one year after the LL. B. Examination. No terms were compulsory, but free lectures were arranged at the different law colleges for the convenience of students who were encouraged to attend them.

(d) The idea of the three-year course in law after the Intermediate Examination has not worked out very satisfactorily. Under this plan, a student gets the LL.B. Degree five years after the S.S.C. Examination. He, therefore, generally prefers to join the law course after his graduation so that he gets two degrees in six years after the S.S.C. Examination. The Law Preliminary Classes have, therefore, not been very popular anywhere. In Bombay, they showed the best enrolment which increased from 70 in 1953 to 187 in 1956; in Poona, they had to be discontinued; and they have continued but in a poor condition in Karnatak.

(e) The strength of the Government Law College, Bombay, has increased very greatly in recent years, and especially after 1952. In 1954-55, it had 1,663 students on the rolls, i.e. about 50 per cent. of the total enrolment in all the seven law colleges of the State put together.

* In 1955, those who had passed the I. Sc. Examination were admitted to the three years' course.

† In 1955, those who had passed the B. Sc. Examination were also admitted to this course.

As a result of this increase in enrolment, the College has long ceased to be a burden on the State Exchequer. It has generally paid its way and very often it has even left substantial surpluses to Government.

8 (14). *Other Law Colleges.*—A law class was attached to the Deccan College, Poona, in the quinquennium 1882-87 and discontinued in the quinquennium 1907-12. But for this effort on a small scale, the Law College, Bombay, was the only institution of Legal Education in this State until about 1924. During the next 30 years, however, six new Colleges of Law have been established at Poona (1924), Ahmedabad (1927), Kolhapur (1933), Surat (1935), Belgaum (1939) and Bombay (1954). All these institutions are under private management. They are also unaided because they can easily meet their expenditure from fee and other sources.

8 (15). *Statistics of Legal Education.*—The following table shows the growth of law colleges in the State since 1881-82:—

TABLE No. 8 (6)

Law Colleges (1881-1955)

Year.		No. of Institu- tions.	No. of Pupils.	Direct expenditure from			Total.
				State Government Funds.	Fees.	Other Sources.	
				Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	
1		2	3	4	5	6	7
1881-82	...	1	136	3,763	4,880	2,028	10,671
1891-92	...	2	223	—2,510	13,585	2,605	13,680
1901-02	...	2	348	2,272	21,942	2,580	26,794
1911-12	...	1	458	—14,943	37,810	1,880	24,747
1921-22	...	1	740	—5,684	70,075	1,958	66,349
1936-37	...	4	1,036	...	99,467	10,675	1.10,142
1951-52	...	6	2,852	...	4,46,114	29,426	4,75,540
1953-54	...	6	3,535	...	5,12,675	39,454	5,52,129
1954-55	...	7	3,896	...	5,91,577	6,023	5,97,600

N. B.—A minus sign before the expenditure from State funds means a surplus. This method of showing the surplus has been discontinued since long.

The following table gives the details of the seven law colleges in the State as on 31st March, 1955:—

TABLE No. 8 (7)

Law Colleges (31-3-1955)

Sr. No.	Name of the College.	No. of Students.	Direct Expenditure from		Total.
			Fees.	Other Sources.	
1	2	3	4	5	6
			Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
1	Government Law College, Bombay ...	1,663	1,91,253	...	1,91,253
2	Law College, Poona ...	318	94,454	...	94,454
3	Shahaji Law College, Kolhapur ...	80	24,547	1,811	26,358
4	Sir Lallubhai Shah Law College, Ahmedabad.	1,029	1,29,237	...	1,29,237
5	Sarvajanik Law College, Surat ...	107	20,560	4,212	24,772
6	Raja Lakhamangawda Law College, Belgaum.	230	40,374	...	40,374
7	New Law College, Bombay ...	469	91,152	...	91,152
	Total ...	3,896	5,91,577	6,023	5,97,600

8 (16). *The High Court Pleaders' Examination.*—When a new system of law was introduced by the British administration and law courts were established in all the districts, the need of pleaders began to be felt everywhere. But as there was only one law college in Bombay until 1924, where steps had to be taken to provide facilities for people in the mofussil to qualify themselves for practice in courts. The High Court of Bombay, therefore, introduced an examination known as the High Court Pleaders' Examination. Matriculates were allowed to appear for this examination and those who passed it were admitted to practice in courts.

This examination proved to be very popular and for a long time the majority of pleaders practising in the courts had passed only the High Court Pleaders' Examination. Gradually, however, the need for this examination began to be less keen because persons who had passed the LL. B. Examination became available in sufficient numbers and also because law colleges were established in mofussil areas. The Examination was, therefore, discontinued in 1938.

IV *Agricultural Education*

8 (17). *The Minute of Sir Richard Temple (1879).*—The credit for the introduction of Agricultural Education in this State goes to Sir Richard Temple who was the Governor of Bombay from 1877 to 1880. In a very able Minute dated the 29th October, 1879 he put forward his proposals for

the development of Agricultural Education. They included (1) the establishment of a College of Agriculture at Poona, (2) the establishment of agricultural classes in the district high schools, (3) the introduction of Agricultural Education through the modern Indian languages at the upper primary stage by attaching farms to selected full-grade primary schools, (4) the introduction of elementary Agricultural Education in all primary schools, (5) the appointment of persons trained in agriculture as Mamlatdars, Mahalkaris, and clerks in order to popularise Agricultural Education among the public, and (6) the training of all Patils and Talatis in some form of elementary education in agriculture. This document is of such great importance in the history of Agricultural Education in the State that it has been quoted below in some detail:—

“(1) The need of agricultural science in this country, the backwardness of the people in the superior methods of culture, the slow deterioration of the soil in many places from exhaustive processes, the want of restorative means and appliances, the probability that by improved husbandry the yield of the soil could be augmented, are considerations so manifestly important that no apology is needed, when I ask my Honourable Colleagues to join me in pressing them upon the attention of all concerned.

(3) I find that Poona is clearly the best place for the establishment of an Agricultural College. At Poona alone have we at hand the scientific appliances and the teaching power for high education in agriculture. As already proposed in my Minute of the 8th September, the Civil Engineering College at Poona (which is fast developing into a College of Science) can make scientific agriculture one of its branches. The Committee, which my Honourable Colleagues concurred with me in appointing, have submitted their proposals, which will be found worthy of approval, whereby only matriculated students will be admitted to the agricultural class. This class, then, will be strictly a College class, and its under-graduates will be qualifying themselves for the degrees which, we hope, the Bombay University will confer in scientific agriculture. In that case the University would fix the standard of examination. At this college will be preserved the high standard of agricultural education which students from the interior of the country may be expected to reach. Here will be placed the Centre and the head of the system. From here will emanate the supervision which will be needed for whatever agricultural schools may be established in the various districts.

(5) I propose (if my Honourable Colleagues shall concur) to establish agricultural classes in some of the High Schools in the several districts of the Presidency. This method will be comparatively cheap and easy; can be almost immediately carried out, and can be adapted to a very small number of students at the outset; whereas the setting up of separate agricultural schools will be costly and difficult, would be beyond the means at present, and would be unsuitable if at the outset only a few students were to come forward. At a high school the students are taught English and the vernacular, also the ordinary kinds of elementary knowledge. Those among them who might be willing to

attend an agricultural class could do so. Mr. Robertson* thinks that one hour a day for indoor agricultural instruction and one hour extra out of doors every other day would suffice. To that extent the students would have to be excused some of the ordinary subject of study, the English and Vernacular studies only being obligatory. After a two years' course they might, in the opinion of Mr. Robertson and Dr. Cooke† receive 'school certificates' of proficiency in agriculture on passing a moderate examination.

18. The foregoing remarks apply to what may be termed superior instruction in agriculture in the upper schools in English. Our object should further be to scatter broadcast as it were the elements of such instruction among the middle schools in the vernacular. Now although six acres represent the minimum area on which superior instruction can be afforded, Mr. Robertson thinks that some elementary instruction which would be much better than nothing, could be afforded to a vernacular class even on one acre. If there were difficulty in exhibiting ploughing still the rotation of crops, some of the methods of culture, and the use of artificial manure, could be exhibited even on this small space. One teacher, trained in the superior classes above described, might in some localities serve several schools, say three. As regards the curriculum the agricultural class-book in English‡ will be soon translated into vernacular; or rather a vernacular class-book of a similar scope will be prepared.

19. Besides the agricultural instruction given, together with experiments on the ground, some rudimentary instruction can be given in all primary schools by means of a primer of agriculture in the vernacular. Mr. Robertson will, as I learn, be good enough to assist in preparing such a primer suited to the circumstances of this country, and then we can soon have it translated into the vernacular. When the teaching of the primer shall be established in the primary schools, some arrangements might be made for having itinerant instructors going about and lecturing from school to school, showing some simple experiments, illustrating the things taught in the primer, and so on. Arrangement of this sort has, I believe, been adopted with success in some countries.

20. One effective method of diffusing a knowledge of agriculture among the land-holding classes is to ensure that our native Revenue Officers and officials shall graduate in this science, the Mamlatdars, the Mahalkaris, and those Karkuns who hope for promotion to the higher grades. We are already endeavouring to arrange that all these officials shall be graduates of the University. If a degree in agriculture shall be established by the University then preference might be given to that degree over other degrees for this particular class of appointments. Or else it might be ordered that all officers and officials in the Land Revenue Department must go through an agriculture course, the higher grades through the college course, the other grades through the school course, as above described. Further, as the system takes root, it will not be

* He was the Superintendent of the Agriculture Institute at Saidapet, Madras, and had been invited to Bombay to give his expert advice.

† The Principal of the Engineering College, Poona.

‡ This had been compiled by Mr. Robertson.

difficult to arrange that all headmen (Patils) and village accountants (Kulkarnis), whose hereditary appointments require the confirmation of the authorities, shall pass some elementary examination in agriculture.”*

It will be no exaggeration to state that the later development of Agricultural Education in the State took place broadly on the lines of this Minute which was written about 75 years ago. It would, therefore, be convenient to trace the history of the later developments in this field on the basis of the proposals made by Sir Richard.

8 (18). *The College of Agriculture, Poona.*—The pivotal scheme in the plan of Sir Richard was to establish a college of agriculture at Poona as the “Centre and head” of the system. Accordingly, agricultural classes were attached to the College of Science, Poona, in 1879. But this arrangement did not prove satisfactory. The College of Agriculture, was, therefore, separated from the College of Science in 1908. It had to remain in temporary buildings for some time, but in 1911-12 it was fully accommodated in its own spacious and new buildings which were opened by Mr. George Clarke, the Governor of Bombay. With this change, the control over the institution was transferred from the Director of Education to the Director of Agriculture.

During the first 25 years of its life, the College did not grow as rapidly as was anticipated. In 1891-92, it had only 19 students and the number increased to 39 only even in 1903-04.† The main reason for this lack of popularity was the absence of an Agricultural Department in the State which would have given work, status and employment to the graduates of the College. Other factors like the dislike of manual labour in the fields which the students of high schools developed or the prejudice of the higher castes against taking agricultural work as a means of their livelihood were also partly responsible. The situation, however, began to improve rapidly after 1904. This was due to several reasons. Firstly, Government instituted a large number of stipends in order to attract students to the College, especially students belonging to the cultivating classes. Secondly, Curzon’s drive for the improvement of agriculture led to a great expansion of the Agricultural Departments in every State and this led to an increased popularity for Agricultural Education. “The history of agricultural education,” wrote Mr. Orange, “has been the History of the growth of the Agricultural Department.”‡ Thirdly, Government also started the practice of recruiting a few agricultural graduates to the Revenue Department as a means of encouragement. Fourthly, the courses were revised and made more useful and realistic. For all these reasons, the enrolment of the College began to show an increase. In 1921-22, the strength of the College was 186; in 1936-37, it fell down slightly to 165 and in 1946-47, it rose again to 559, due mainly to the programmes of expansion undertaken for the Post-War Reconstruction Scheme. Thereafter, the enrolment again showed a fall, mainly due to the establishment of other agricultural colleges.

* Report of the D. P. I., Bombay, 1886-87, pp. 101-03.

† In some of the interim years, the number was still smaller. In 1895-96, for instance, there were only 5 students and in 1896-97, the whole class was empty.

‡ Progress of Education in India, 1902-07, p. 176.

Although Sir Richard had hoped that the agricultural classes should end in a university degree, several practical difficulties arose and the University instituted a *Diploma in Agriculture* (or D. Ag.) only as late as 1892. For the first 13 years, therefore, the College had to hold its own examination and this was also one of the reasons for its slow progress in the early years. In 1900, the Degree of L. Ag. was introduced; but it was replaced by the B. Ag. in 1909 and the Degree of M. Ag. was introduced in 1919. Both these degrees were replaced by B. Sc. (Agri.), and M. Sc. (Agri.) in 1937 and 1943 respectively.

This college has been the premier institution of Agricultural Education in the State and it has been also regarded as one of the best agricultural colleges in the whole of India.

8 (19). *Other Agricultural Colleges.*—Even as early as in 1879, Sir Richard had observed that Gujarat possesses “superior local advantages, respecting the productiveness of agriculture and the enterprising character of the people” and that “if the development of agricultural education shall enable us to establish a college in Gujarat, that will be well.”* But this hope was realised only in 1947 when the B. A. College of Agriculture was established at Anand. The College is under private management and is aided.

To meet the need of the Kannada areas, Government established an agricultural college at Dharwar in 1947.

The following table gives the details, as on 31st March, 1955, of the three agricultural colleges established so far in this State:—

TABLE No. 8 (8)
Agricultural Colleges, (31-3-1955)

Sr. No.	Name of the College.	Management.	Year of establishment.	Number of Students.	Expenditure from			
					State Funds.	Fees.	Other Sources.	Total.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
					Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
1	College of Agriculture, Poona.	Government.	1908	326	4,36,051	46,892	...	4,82,943
2	College of Agriculture, Dharwar.	Government.	1947	150	3,24,625	20,015	85,665	4,30,305
3	B. A. College of Agriculture, Anand, District Kaira.	Aided	1917	150	2,54,600	21,075	45,501	3,21,176
		Total	...	626	10,15,276	87,982	1,31,166	12,34,424

* Minute, dated 29-10-1879, para. 3.

8 (20). *Agricultural High Schools.*—The second proposal of Sir Richard was to open agricultural schools; but as these might not succeed immediately, he proposed to attach agricultural classes to a few Government high schools as a preliminary measure. This proposal was also accepted and eight agricultural classes were attached to high schools in 1880 and the number was increased to nine in the following year. For a time, all went well with them and they became comparatively popular and were availed of by two or three hundred students. But very soon difficulties began to crop up. The novelty of the experiment wore off and as high authorities ceased to take an interest in them, the movement began to cool down. The transfer of Government secondary schools to private agencies or local bodies as a result of the recommendations of the Hunter Commission also acted as a damper because local or private managements did not evince any enthusiasm for the idea. In 1888-89, it was reported that this transfer was so complete that "no land is now anywhere held by the Department."* In 1896-97, the number of these classes had dwindled to four and the final curtain was dropped on the scheme in 1904-05 when it was reported that there were no longer any "old fashioned" agricultural classes attached to high schools.†

During the brief life of this small and abortive experiment, some attempts were also made to attract the children of agricultural classes to them but they did not succeed. The only bright feature of the experiment was the special examination in agriculture which the authorities of the Poona Agricultural College used to conduct for them. On passing this test, the students could get employment under Government or join the Agricultural College at Poona.

The idea thus abandoned in 1904-05 was again revived in 1937 when the Popular Ministry came to office. Some of the Government high schools began to teach a course in agriculture and grants-in-aid were given to private schools also if they instituted it. The idea soon began to develop and in 1954-55, there were 9 agricultural high schools in the State—5 Government and 4 private. Their details, as on 31st March, 1955, are given below:—

* Report of the D. P. I., Bombay, 1888-89, p. 34.

† Ibid, 1903-04, p. 42 and 1904-05, p. 43.

TABLE No. 8 (9)
Agricultural High Schools (31-3-1955)

1	Name of School.	Year of esta- blish- ment.	Number of Pupils.	Expenditure from					Remarks.
				Govern- ment Funds. 5	Muni- cipal Funds. 6	Fees. 7	Other Sources. 8	Total. 9	
	<i>Government</i>								
1	Satara High School, Satara*	1862	282	Rs. 47,339	Rs. ...	Rs. 11,737	Rs. ...	Rs. 59,076	*This school is treated as an Agricultural High School, for the purposes of the A. R. although one Divi- sion of Std. VIII onwards is converted into a techni- cal division.
2	G. S. Agricultural High School, Jal- gaon, East-Khandesh.	1914	116	35,418	--	4,970	3,265	43,653	
3	Telang Agricultural High School, Godhra.	1894	81	31,431	...	3,361	2,240	37,032	
4	D. S. and B. Sarvajani Agricultural High School, Abrama (Dist.—Surat).	1927	455	23,640	...	25,882	6,391	55,913	
5	Government Agricultural High School, Bijapur.	1885	234	49,687	...	10,149	5,635	65,471	
	Total (Government)...	...	1,168	1,87,515	...	56,099	17,531	2,61,145	
	<i>Non-Government</i>								
1	Private High School, Rajapur *(Ratna- giri.	1890	342	26,587	1,000	19,242	13,325	60,151	**This school is treated as an Agricultural High School for the purposes of the A. R. although it is a com o site school.
2	Anjuman-i-Islam Agricultural High School, Murad (Dist. Kolaba).	1954	39	800	...	2,121	14,908	17,829	
3	A. E. Society's Agricultural High School, Jangaon (Dist. Ahmednagar).	1954	33	362	...	2,316	...	2,678	
4	Kanara Agricultural High School, Ankola, (Dist. N. Kanara).	1953	211	9,379	...	8,298	1,984	19,661	
	Total (Non-Government)...	...	625	37,128	1,000	31,977	30,217	1,00,322	
	Grand Total...	...	1,793	2,24,643	1,000	88,076	47,748	3,61,467	

8 (21). *Other Proposals of Sir Richard.*—The third proposal of Sir Richard was to introduce the teaching of agriculture at the upper primary stage. This idea was taken up later under the name of agricultural bias schools. The detailed history of this experiment has already been described in Chapter III.

The fourth proposal of Sir Richard was that primer on Agricultural Education should be prepared and taught in all primary schools. No action was taken on this recommendation till 1906 when the Conventon Committee prepared a series of three agricultural readers to be used in Standards III, IV & V of the rural or Modi schools. These disappeared from the field in 1916-17 when the Modi standards were abolished.

The fifth proposal of Sir Richard was that appointments to posts in the Revenue Department should be given to agricultural graduates. This has been acted upon off and on. But obviously, the suggestion has outlived its utility now, although it did serve a valid purpose at the time when it was made.

The sixth proposal of Sir Richard was that Patil and Kulkarnis should be compelled to receive some education in agriculture. It has not yet been possible to implement this although Government has recently ordered that persons educated in the agricultural schools should be preferred for appointment as village officers.

8 (22). *Agricultural Schools.*—Sir Richard had ruled out the idea of agricultural schools on the ground that they would be “costly and difficult and.....unsuitable.....if only a few students were to come forward.” But the scheme was taken up a little later, and by 1921-22, two agricultural schools conducted by Government were already functioning in the State—one at Devihosur (Dharwar District) and the other at Dhulia (West Khandesh District). Besides, there was an aided agricultural school at Rajapur (District Ratnagiri).

When the Popular Ministry came to office, it decided to increase the number of agricultural schools until one such school was established in every district. The scheme has made good progress so far and in 1954-55, there were 17 agricultural schools in the State with an enrolment of 1,006.

At present, these schools provide a two years' intensive course in agriculture after the P. S. C. Examination. Their principal object is to train children of agriculturists in modern methods of cultivation. But they also supply employees to the Agriculture and Revenue Departments.

The following table shows the development of agricultural schools during the last 50 years:—

TABLE No. 8 (10)

Agricultural Schools

Year.	No. of Agricultural Schools.	Number of Pupils.	Total Expenditure on Agricultural Schools met from					Total.
			State Funds.	Municipal Funds.	Local Board Funds.	Fees.	Other Sources.	
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
			Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
1901-02	...	80	2,400	...	6,722	9,122
1921-22	...	103	19,171	...	288	19,459
1936-37	...	77	13,446	...	500	...	3,530	17,476
1941-42	...	122	19,485	14,885	34,370
1946-47	...	185	49,152	5,885	22,194	77,231
1951-52	...	1,084	9,94,458	22,418	10,16,876
1953-54	...	981	4,11,914	5,33,802	9,45,716
1954-55	...	1,006	4,95,670	4,31,013	9,26,683

N.B.—The Horticultural class in Poona was closed in 1954-55.

V Education in Veterinary Science and Forestry

8 (23). *The Veterinary College, Bombay.*—Veterinary Education in the State began out of the needs of the army which used to maintain large numbers of horses and mules and therefore needed the services of trained veterinary doctors on a fairly large scale. Unfortunately, it is not possible to trace the exact origin of Veterinary Education in the State. But Sir Richard Temple has observed, as early as 1879, that there was an excellent school of Veterinary Education at Poona.* When agricultural classes were started in the College of Science at Poona, veterinary instruction formed one of the subjects included in the course, and this provision seems to be the only facility then existing for the training of veterinary surgeons or assistants.

In 1883, the Government of Bombay recognised the necessity of making better provision for the spread of veterinary science and decided to establish a veterinary college. A committee was appointed to inquire into the matter and it reported that a college for this purpose should be established at Bombay where the clinical facilities afforded by the Bai Sakarbai Dinshaw Petit Hospital for Animals (established by Sir D. M. Petit, under the auspices of the Society of Prevention of Cruelty to Animals) were available. This recommendation was accepted and the Bombay Veterinary College was opened at Parel on 2nd August, 1886.

In the early days, the College found it very difficult to obtain sufficiently educated persons as students. It, therefore, conducted two courses, one through the medium of English and another through the medium of modern Indian languages. As Government realised the need to develop the live-stock of the country with a view to developing its agriculture, the need for veterinary surgeons increased very greatly and, in consequence, the College was expanded steadily though slowly. In course of time a sufficient number of persons educated in English became available as students and hence the courses conducted through the medium of modern Indian languages were discontinued. Until 1945, the College used to award its own diploma of G. B. V. C.; but since that year it has been affiliated to the University of Bombay for the purpose of the B. Sc. (Vet.) Degree. In the early years, admission was open to all persons who had a knowledge of English. But later on admissions were restricted to those who had passed the Matriculation Examination and finally the admission standard was raised to Intermediate Science Examination. The original course was of three years' duration; but since 1945, the duration has been increased to four years.

In the beginning, the administration of the College was placed in the hands of a Committee of Management. Later, it was transferred to the Director of Public Instruction and still later to the Director of Agriculture. In 1919, on the separation of the Veterinary Department from that of Agriculture, the Principal was placed in sole charge and in 1932, with the creation of the post of Director of Veterinary Services, the College was placed under the control of the Director of Veterinary Services, Bombay State, Poona.

* Report of the Director of Public Instruction, Bombay, 1879-80, p. 101.

From 1886 to 1954, the College has produced 1,232 graduates, of whom 1,039 are Diploma-holders (G.B.V.C.) and 193 Degree-holders B.Sc. (Vet.). While most of them are employed as veterinary assistants, some have been employed as professors of other veterinary colleges in India and quite a few have passed the M. R. C. V. S. Examination. They are met with in Ceylon, in Federated Malaya States, in the Far East, in Mauritius, East Africa, Zanzibar, Aden, etc. Some graduates have even gone as far a field as Brazil and the West Indies.

8 (24). *Forestry Education.*—There are large forests in the Bombay State and their proper conservancy is a matter of great national importance. Education in forestry, therefore, was started very early in this State. Botany and Forestry formed one of the elective subjects for the final examination of the Degree of Licentiate of Civil Engineering of the Bombay University for which candidates were prepared in the College of Science at Poona. The same institution also conducted a separate "Forest Branch" with a two years' course to which students who had passed the Matriculation or the School Final Examination were admitted. The training imparted in this institution was largely theoretical as it was not possible to provide for practical training in the forests. The arrangements, therefore, proved to be generally unsatisfactory and failed to attract suitable candidates. It was, therefore, decided that the training of candidates for the Bombay Forest Department should be done at the Dehra Dun Forest School and that the arrangements for Forestry Education made in the College of Science at Poona should be discontinued.*

A second experiment in this field was undertaken in the quinquennium 1917-22. "A college for the training of Ranger students," wrote the Director of Education, "was established at Dharwar during the quinquennium. This college started work on July 1, 1920 with 9 students, one of whom was dropped after the first year as not being sufficiently promising to follow the course. All these students successfully passed through the course, 2 obtaining honours and 6 the ordinary pass diploma. Fifteen students were admitted in July, 1921, and of these 2 were dropped during the course. The remainder are to finish their training in the districts and in Dharwar, but the project of providing College buildings, for which plans were prepared, has been dropped and Government has decided not to proceed with the scheme of training owing to the high cost per head which would have to be incurred. The students are, therefore, once more to be trained at Dehra Dun."†

A third experiment in the same field was tried in 1949 when a Forest College was started at Dharwar. It conducted two courses, one for the training of rangers and another for the training of foresters. In 1953-54, however, this institution was closed on grounds of financial stringency.

It will be seen from the foregoing review, therefore, that attempts to organise Forestry Education in this State have not succeeded to any appreciable extent, and that the State has mostly been dependent upon the Forest School at Dehra Dun for the training of the officers of its Forest Department.

* Quinquennial Review of the Progress of Education in India, 1897-1902, p. 278.

† Report of the Director of Public Instruction, Bombay, 1921-22, p. 77.

VI Engineering, Technical and Industrial Education

8 (25). *Early attempts to train Engineers.*—As early as 1824, an engineering institution was established in Bombay and maintained wholly at Government expense. The superintendent of the institution was Captain Jervis who was a champion of the view that all higher education should be imparted through the modern Indian languages—a principle which he actually practised in this school. Fisher records that it had an enrolment of 36 Indian and 34 Anglo-Indian students in 1824; that its enrolment increased to 86 in 1826; that it had given “high satisfaction” to Government; and that the Court of Directors sanctioned an addition to the salary of Captain Jervis in 1829.* But very little is known of the further history of this pioneer experiment.

Another attempt to train engineers was made in 1844 when an engineering class was started in the Elphinstone Institution. This attempt differed from the earlier experiment in two ways—firstly, the medium of instruction now adopted was English; and secondly, while the object of the earlier class had been humbler—to train up subordinates for the Public Works Department—the object of this class was “not to produce a class of Assistant surveyors and builders trained according to the rule of the thumb, but scientific Civil Engineers fully grounded in the theory of the their Art.† But the class did not succeed and had to be closed in 1948. Government complained that the students trained as civil engineers were incompetent while the Board of Education complained that students were not attracted to the class because sufficient inducement in terms of employment under Government was not held out. But whatever the reasons, the fact remains that the class proved to be a total failure.

8 (26). *The College of Engineering, Poona.*—The next landmark in the history of Engineering Education in the State is the establishment of the Poona Engineering Class and Mechanical School in 1854. It made a humble appearance in a rented building in the Bhavani Peth area of the Poona City; but during the last 101 years, it has developed into the premier Institute of Engineering Education in the State.

It was Howard who felt that this class and school should really be developed into a college. His idea received a great impetus when Sir Cowasji Jehangir gave a munificent donation of Rs. 50,000 to the College with the object of providing “a new profession for his fellow-countrymen.” Accordingly, the Institution was converted into the Poona Civil Engineering College in 1864 and two years later, it was affiliated to the Bombay University for the degree of L. C. E. (Licentiate of Civil Engineering) which was first awarded in 1869. At this time, the admission standard was the Matriculation and the degree course was spread over three years.

In 1868, the College was shifted to the new building; and during the next ten years, it made very good progress because the student who stood first in the degree examination was guaranteed employment in the I. S. E. (Indian Service of Engineers) and six others were guaranteed

appointment in the Bombay Public Works Department. In 1878, the total number of students enrolled in the College was 172.

From 1879 to 1911 the College functioned, not as an institution devoted exclusively to Engineering Education, but as a *College of Science* in which a number of branches were taught simultaneously. Agricultural classes which first prepared for a college examination and later on for a diploma and degree of the Bombay University were instituted as a part of this college in 1879; provision for some Veterinary Education was made because the agricultural course of this period included an elementary knowledge of veterinary science; and a forestry class was also introduced with the object of training rangers for the Forest Department. But very soon, it was decided to take these additional courses out and restrict the College to its original function of Engineering Education only. Accordingly, the forestry class was closed in 1904 and the agricultural classes were separated in 1911. From that year, therefore, the college again began to be called “College of Engineering, Poona.”

From 1911 to 1955, the history of the College has been one of commendable and continuous progress. It is true that in the early years, the progress of the College was accelerated by the fact that certain appointments in the I. S. E. and Bombay Public Works Department were guaranteed to its students every year. In 1929, the guarantee of I. S. E. was withdrawn. The guarantee of appointment in the Bombay Public Works Department was withdrawn in 1931, restored in 1940 and finally discontinued in 1952. But the progress of the College no longer depended upon such inducements; and its popularity has been continually on the increase, due partly to the high standard of efficiency which it has been able to maintain and partly to the larger field of employment that is now open to engineers.

Since 1949, the College is functioning as a constituent college of the University of Poona.

During its history of a hundred years, the college courses have often been revised and the facilities provided at the College have been continuously increased. As stated earlier, the College had its own courses until the University Degree of L. C. E. was started in 1869. The course for this degree was revised and the admission standard was raised from the Matriculation to the First Year Examination in 1886. The Degree of M. C. E. (Master of Civil Engineering) was started in 1890. The Degree of Bachelor of Civil Engineering or B. E. (Civil) replaced the L. C. E. in 1912 and that of M. E.—(Master of Engineering) replaced the M. C. E. in 1932. The B. E. (Mech.) degree course was started in 1914 and the B. E. (Elec.) degree course in 1932. In 1924, the standard of admission was raised to Intermediate Examination in science. In 1944, the duration of all courses was raised to 3½ years and the electrical and mechanical courses were combined into one. In 1948, two new courses, B. E. (Metallurgy) and B. E. (Tele-communication) were introduced and in 1952, the duration of the degree course was again lowered to 3 years and the electrical and mechanical courses were separated.

Right from the start, the College has been training students in its workshops. In the beginning, it used to award its own Certificates to the

* Selections from Educational Records, Volume I, p. 197.

† Ibid, Vol. II, p. 353.

pupils so trained. In 1925, this practice was discontinued and Diplomas in Civil, Mechanical and Electrical Engineering began to be awarded. A fourth Diploma in Tele-communications was added later. These diploma courses are now spread over three years and the admission standard is the S. S. C. Examination.

At present, the admissions to the College are open to 300 students per year and are distributed as follows:—

		Degree Course.	Diploma Course.
Civil Engineering	...	80	80
Mechanical Engineering	...	25	30
Electrical Engineering	...	25	30
Metallurgy	...	10	...
Tele-communications	...	10	10
Total	...	150	150

To-day the number of students enrolled in the College is well over a thousand and the staff numbers more than 300, of whom 74 are teachers.

8 (27). *Other Engineering Colleges (1937-55).*—Until 1937, the College of Engineering, Poona, was the only institution in this State to impart instruction in engineering. Since the Second World War, the demand for engineers began to increase and it has multiplied still further owing to the development schemes included in the P. W. R. and the Five Year Plans. Even the increased accommodation in the Poona College could hardly meet the problem, and new colleges of engineering had to be established or aided.

It is really creditable that universities and private bodies entered the field at this critical juncture and established new colleges of engineering. On 31st March, 1955, therefore, the number of engineering colleges had increased to 8 as against 1 in 1937 when the Popular Ministry came to office.

The following statement shows the general progress of these eight colleges of engineering as on 31st March, 1955:—

TABLE No. 8 (11)
Engineering Colleges (31-3-1955)

Sr. No.	Name of the College.	Year of establishment.	No. of Students.	Total Expenditure (Direct) from			
				Central Govt. Funds.	State Govt. Funds.	Fees.	Other Sources.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
				Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
1	<i>Central Government</i> Nautical Engineering College, Bombay	1948	115	1,71,571	...	44,798	...
2	<i>State Government</i> College of Engineering, Poona	1854	1,083 (483)	...	5,40,671	2,02,275	15,351
3	L. D. College of Engineering, Ahmedabad	1948	557 (256)	...	4,51,378	1,31,592	886
4	<i>Aided</i> Victoria Jubilee Technical Institute, Bombay	1887	1,823 (1,382)	2,84,794	2,35,078	4,16,961	41,660
5	New Engineering College, Sangli	1947	339	...	85,179	1,37,511	...
6	B. V. Bhoomraddi College of Engineering and Technology, Hubli.	1946	241 (130)	...	72,804	88,844	53,811
7	Birla Vishwakarma Mahavidyalaya, Vallabh Vidyanagar.	1948	712 (251)	...	1,17,939	2,83,042	1,30,090
8	Faculty of Engineering, Baroda	1890	1,427 (1,058)	1,79,439	4,14,165
	Total		6247 (3,555)	4,56,365	15,03,049	14,84,462	6,54,968
							40,98,889

N. B.—Figures given in brackets in column 4 are of those enrolled in Diploma Classes attached to the College.

8 (28). *Directorate of Technical Education*.—When institutions imparting Engineering, Technical or Industrial Education were first established in this State, they were all placed under the administration of the Director of Education. It was realised that some sort of specialised supervision would be necessary for such institutions; but their number was so small that it was not considered worth-while to set up special inspectorates for the purpose.

The drive for educational reconstruction started by Curzon in the beginning of this century emphasised the necessity of special inspectorates, with the result that a number of such agencies came to be organised during the next two decades. In so far as Technical Education is concerned, it appears that a member of the staff of the College of Engineering, Poona, performed the duties of an *Inspector of Technical Education* for the State about the year 1900. Detailed records are not available to show the circumstances under which the post was created, nor the circumstances under which it was abolished. But the mere existence of the post shows that the problem had begun to receive some attention towards the end of nineteenth century.

The first sustained effort in this direction seems to have been made by the Committee of Direction for Technical Education, Bombay, appointed by Government in 1913 as recommended by the Sprott Committee. The staff of the V. J. Technical Institute which was declared by Government to be the Central Technological Institute for the State, carried out the inspection of various schools recognised by the Committee. As the number of technical institutes grew, the service of a full-time inspector became necessary. A Teaching Inspector was, therefore, appointed by the Committee in 1919. The designation was later changed to the *Inspector for Technical and Industrial Schools*. A second post was created in 1945 on account of the increase in the number of schools.

In 1931, the College of Engineering, Poona, continued under the Director of Education but the control of Technical and Industrial Education was transferred to the Director of Industries. The Committee of Direction for Technical Education also continued to function under that Department. This state of affairs existed till 1948.

When the Popular Ministry came back to office in 1946, it took up for consideration the problem of supervision of Technical Education in the State. The requirements of trained technical personnel for the post-war reconstruction schemes as well as for the Development Plans of the State were so great that it was absolutely necessary to develop Technical Education very rapidly. It was, therefore, felt that it would be desirable to have a separate *Directorate of Technical Education*. On 1st April, 1948, therefore, this special Directorate was created and all Engineering, Technical and Industrial Education in the State was placed in its charge. The Head of the Department was designated as the Joint Director of Technical Education (This designation was later on changed to the Director of Technical Education) and he was assisted by two Inspectors and two Deputy Inspectors of Technical Education and the necessary subordinate staff.

To assist the Director of Technical Education, Government created a State Board of Technical and Industrial Training which was later on replaced by the *State Council of Technical Education*. The functions of the Council are to advise Government and make recommendations regarding (i) courses and standards of instruction; (ii) inspection, conditions of recognition and grant-in-aid; (iii) opening of new technical institutions; (iv) appointments of Boards of Studies for various branches of technology and engineering; (v) arrangements for examination and award of certificates and diplomas; and (vi) preparation of text-books in Hindi and regional languages.

The office of the Director of Technical Education began to function from 1st June, 1948. Since then, it has been managing all institutions of Engineering, Technical and Industrial Education throughout the State. It has framed syllabuses for about a hundred technical courses and it conducts technical examinations in more than 150 centres and examines more than 12,000 students a year. The experience of the last seven years, therefore, shows that the creation of this separate Directorate has been of considerable help in the development of Technical Education in the State.

8 (29). *Technical High Schools*.—As stated earlier in Chapter V, the idea of diversifying the secondary school course and of establishing technical high schools was taken up, for the first time, by the Popular Ministry which came to office in 1937. Under the scheme then formulated, some of the Government high schools were converted into technical high schools and liberal grants were instituted for such private schools as would provide for the teaching of technical subjects. During the last 18 years, therefore, a good deal of progress has been made in this field. On 31st March, 1955, there were 8 technical high schools in the State of which 4 were conducted by Government and 4 by private enterprise. The details about these high schools as on 31st March, 1955 are given in the following table:—

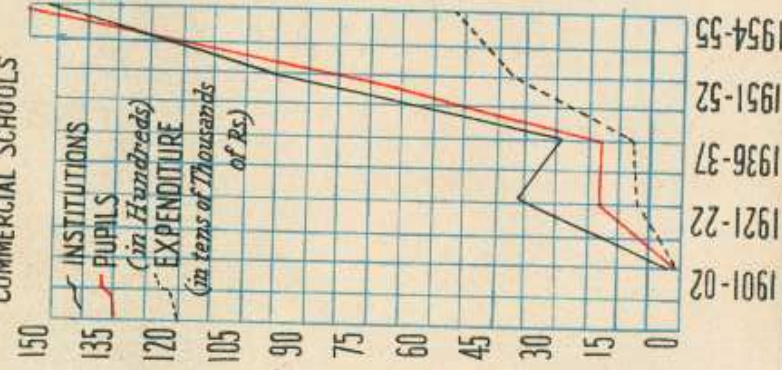
TABLE No. 8 (12)
Technical High Schools (31-3-1955)

S. No.	Name of School.	Date of establishment.	No. of Pupils.	Expenditure from					Total Expenditure.	
				Government Funds.		Fees.	Other Sources.			
				Rs.	Municipal Funds.			Rs.		Rs.
Government										
1.	Elphinstone Technical High School, Fort, Bombay.	1941	563	1,01,810	...	38,101	4,973	1,44,884		
2.	R. V. Technical High School, Khar, Bombay.	1941	186	28,017	...	11,684	1,835	41,536		
3.	Northcote Technical High School, Sholapur.	1855	555	63,489	...	34,664	...	98,153		
4.	Technical High School, Hubli.	1950	173	31,537	...	9,648	...	41,185		
	Total	1,477	2,24,853	...	94,097	6,808	3,25,758		
Non-Government										
1.	M. H. Saboo Siddik Technical High School, Byculla, Bombay.	1936	383	76,290	...	46,120	45,761	1,68,171		
2.	Robert Money Technical High School, Proctor Road, Bombay.	1836	601	30,801	6,000	69,922	14,021	1,20,744		
3.	Patuck Technical High School, Santacruz, Bombay.	1952	84	13,879	...	6,018	27,132	47,029		
4.	Kala Bhavan Technical High School, Baroda.	1952	148	9,769	7,484	17,253		
	Total	1,216	1,20,970	6,000	1,31,829	94,398	3,53,197		
	Grand Total	2,693	3,45,823	6,000	2,25,926	1,01,206	6,78,955		

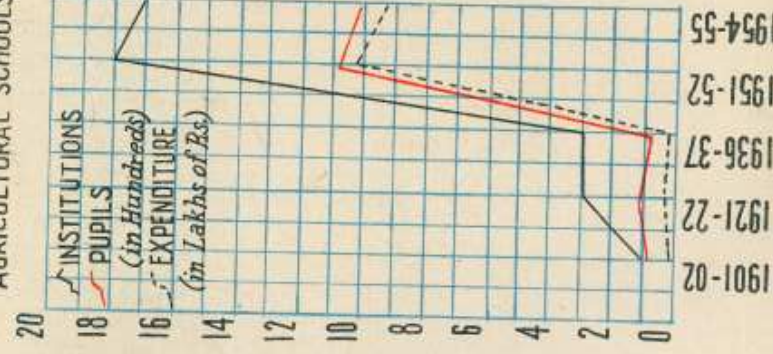
SCHOOLS FOR PROFESSIONAL EDUCATION

(1901 - 1955)

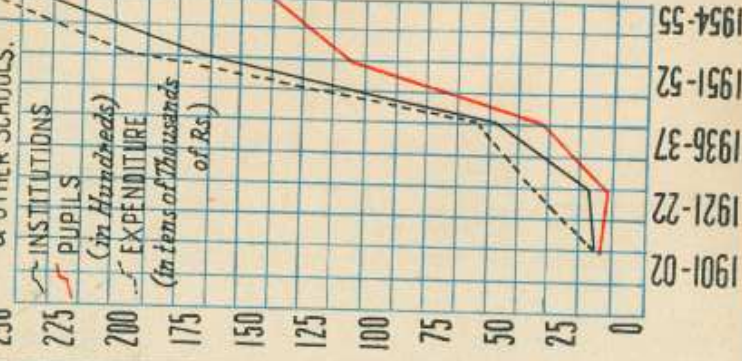
COMMERCIAL SCHOOLS



AGRICULTURAL SCHOOLS



ENGINEERING, TECHNICAL, INDUSTRIAL & OTHER SCHOOLS.



B.P.E.R. 1904/1955.

The following table shows the growth of institutions for Technical Education in the State during the present century:—

TABLE No. 8 (13)

Engineering, Technical, Industrial and Other Schools (1901-55)

	No. of Schools.	No. of Pupils.	Total Expenditure from				
			State Funds.	District School Board Funds.	Municipal Funds.	Fees.	Other Sources.
			Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
1901-02 (a) Engineering & Surveying.	...	1	14	640	4,724
(b) Industrial Schools	...	19	1,829	16,694	9,605	5,468	1,98,028
Total	...	20	1,843	16,694	9,605	6,108	2,02,752
1921-22 (a) Engineering & Surveying.	...	1	5	950	100	903	7,628
(b) Industrial Schools	...	22	1,458	2,34,120	34,093	31,625	4,38,627
Total	...	23	1,463	2,37,020	34,193	32,528	4,46,255
1936-37 (a) Engineering	...	1	252	27,360	50,016
(b) Technical & Industrial.	...	59	3,620	22,183	60,875	1,93,379	6,19,546
Total	...	60	3,872	22,183	60,875	2,20,739	6,69,562

TABLE No. 8 (13)—Contd.

Total Expenditure from									
	No. of Schools.	No. of Pupils.	State Funds,	District Scol Board Funds.		Municipal Funds.	Fees.	Other Sources.	Total.
			Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
1951-52 (a) Engineering
(b) Poly-Technical	3	607	2,24,438	...	21,851	37,339	...	56,816	3,40,494
High Technical	5	853	41,969	2,95,463	...	58,857	3,95,989
Other Technical	1	68	4,632	6,065	...	4,027	14,724
(c) Industrial	30	1,636	4,13,997	1,640	15,891	20,256	...	2,46,100	7,02,884
(d) Arts & Crafts	138	8,666	64,203	1,144	65,206	2,26,022	...	2,47,815	6,04,390
Total	177	11,830	7,53,989	2,784	1,02,948	5,85,145	...	6,13,615	20,58,481
1954-55 (a) Engineering	1	72	21,870	...	227	22,097
(b) Poly-Technical	4	969	2,23,451	1,000	12,585	69,812	...	81,597	3,88,445
High Technical	4	758	47,004	1,93,451	...	67,211	3,07,666
Other Technical	12	461	2,757	32,740	...	13,294	48,791
(c) Industrial	38	2,704	4,64,849	944	630	61,752	...	1,71,130	11,71,788*
(d) Arts & Crafts	184	9,919	1,07,671	...	7,000	3,43,471	...	2,70,810	7,28,952
Total	243	14,883	8,45,732	1,944	20,215	7,23,096	...	6,04,269	26,67,739

* Out of this, Rs. 4,72,483 has been contributed by the Government of India.

It may be said that Technical Education was in its extreme infancy during the nineteenth century. In 1901-02, there were only 20 engineering and industrial schools in the State with an enrolment of 1,843 students and a total expenditure of Rs. 2,02,752 out of which Rs. 61,001 only came from State funds. During the last 55 years, the number of these institutions has increased to 243 and their enrolment has risen to 14,883. The total expenditure of these institutions has also increased to Rs. 26,67,739 out of which Rs. 8,45,732 come from State funds. The Government of India has been taking a very keen interest in the development of Technical Education since the attainment of Independence and in 1954-55, it contributed Rs. 4,72,483 to the expenditure on Technical Education in the State.

VII Special Education

It was stated earlier in Chapter VI that there were 65 colleges of Professional Education in the State of Bombay on 31st March, 1955. These can be classified as follows:—

1. Colleges of Education	10
2. Engineering Colleges	8
3. Colleges of Medicine	15
4. Veterinary College	1
5. Agricultural Colleges	3
6. Colleges of Commerce	11
7. Law Colleges	7
8. College of applied Arts and Architecture	1
9. Other Colleges	9
Total	65

The nine institutions which have been classified as "Other Colleges" in the above list include the following:—

1. College of Indian Music, Baroda.
2. Baroda Sanskrit Mahavidyalaya, Baroda.
3. Training Institute for Physical Education, Kandivali.
4. Faculty of Fine Arts, M. S. University, Baroda.
5. Tata Institute of Social Science, Bombay.

6. Faculty of Social Work, M. S. University, Baroda.
7. Co-operative Training College, Poona.
8. The G. S. College of Yoga and Cultural Synthesis, Lonavala.
9. The Faculty of Home Science, M. S. University, Baroda.

Of these, the institution at serial Nos. 1, 2, 4 and 8 will be dealt with later in Chapter XV in the appropriate context. The institution at serial No. 3 will be dealt with in Chapter X which is devoted to Physical Education. The institutions at serial Nos. 6 and 9 have already been described in Chapter VI while dealing with the M. S. University of Baroda and the institution at serial No. 5 has also been described in the same Chapter in Section X. It is, therefore, necessary to deal here with one institution only, *viz.*, the Co-operative Training College, Poona, which is a premier institution of its type in the whole of India.

8 (30). *Co-operative Training College, Poona.*—In pursuance of the recommendations of the Committee appointed by Government under the Chairmanship of Sir J. A. Madan, it was decided that a Co-operative Training College should be established at Poona for training of higher departmental staff and persons holding key positions in co-operative institutions, and that it should function under the aegis of the Bombay Provincial Co-operative Institute. The Co-operative Training College was accordingly opened at Poona in June, 1947. The State Government has been sanctioning grants-in-aid to the Bombay Provincial Co-operative Institute which finances the College activities upto a limited extent. The College provides training facilities for students who desire to appear for the Examination for the *Higher Diploma in Co-operation*. Its training course is spread over one year and admission is restricted to graduates of recognised universities. In the case of candidates deputed by the Co-operative Department or co-operative institutions, however, even persons who have passed the Intermediate Examination of a recognised university and put in three years' service in the Co-operative Department or a co-operative institution are admitted. A tuition fee of Rs. 75 per term is charged. This is reduced to Rs. 50 per term in the case of candidates deputed by the Co-operative Department of the Government of Bombay or by co-operative institutions in the Bombay State. Moreover in order to relieve financial strain on State Governments and co-operative institutions deputing candidates for training, certain concessions in the form of free tuition, payment of travelling allowance, rent-free lodging and monthly stipends are provided by the Reserve Bank of India.

The College is also intended to undertake investigations and research that would assist in the development of the co-operative movement and stimulate the application of co-operative principles for solution of social and economic problem.

CHAPTER IX

SOCIAL EDUCATION

9 (1). *Adult Education Classes attached to the Purandar Schools*
In Chapter III a reference has already been made to the interesting experiment of village schools in the Purandar Taluka of the Poona District, which were organised by Lieutenant Shortrede in 1836. Some of these schools organised evening classes also and the very first report of the Director of Public Instruction states that several evening classes "have been established in the Poorundhur Circle for the instruction of adult agricultural population. These are said to have met with success. Many cultivators have made some progress; in two instances the advancement was sufficient to enable the men to assist in the instruction of their children."* In 1856-57, the Educational Inspector reported that the attendance in the evening classes "is very irregular and fluctuating. It cannot be otherwise, in a population wholly agricultural."† In 1857-58, as many as 119 adults were reported to be in attendance in these classes and in 1858-59, the Educational Inspector again reported that he was pleased to find that several teachers of the Purandar schools "had opened evening classes for adults. The Koonbees, who are at work in the fields all day, avail themselves of the opportunity of learning to read and write. Some of these classes are numerous attended."‡ But unfortunately, these adult classes are not mentioned at all in any further report of the Director of Public Instruction. Presumably, they died out as a result of the neglect of the experiment of the Purandar schools themselves.

9 (2). *Night Schools (1871-1921).*—A fresh beginning of the experiment was made in 1871-72 when Mr. J. B. Peile, the then Director of Education, saw some night schools conducted by the teachers under training in the Primary Teachers' Training College at Kolhapur. The classes had been spontaneously started as a result of local initiative and had an enrolment of 250 in 1871. They were meant for "adults and boys who are occupied during the day" and for "Hindus of the mixed castes, Mussalmans, cultivators, and such like." "Brahmins and others who could attend day schools" were not admitted. The cost of a class was very small—Rs. 5 for the teacher, Rs. 3 for lights, and a small sum for the supply of elementary books and slates. Peile was so greatly impressed by these classes that he at once directed other training institutions to take it up.¶ The work was thus restarted on a larger scale and with a much better prospect of continuity and expansion.

* Report, 1855-56, p. 133.

† Report, 1856-57, p. 303.

‡ Report, 1858-59, p. 165.

¶ Director of Public Instruction's letter No. 4598 of 15-1-1872, printed at pages 445-47 of the Report for 1871-72.

But unfortunately, the experiment did not make much headway. For the next 50 years, the night schools were neither abandoned nor developed on a large scale as the following statistics will show:—

TABLE No. 9 (1)
Night Schools (1871-1921)

Year.	No. of Night Schools.	No. of Students.
1872-73	93	3,000
1881-82	134	3,919
1886-87	281	7,597
1891-92	316	7,610
1896-97	239	5,408
1901-02	107	2,380
1906-07	134	3,288
1911-12	175	4,543
1916-17	111	3,197
1921-22	168	5,175

N. B.—Besides these, a few sporadic Night Classes for adults used to be conducted. Statistics of these classes are, however, not included in the above.

It will be seen, therefore, that the movement did not make any great progress during this period. This was mainly due to the fact that the officials of this period did not have much faith in the night schools and did not, in consequence, make any earnest efforts to develop the movement. For example, the Educational Inspector of the North-East Division reported in 1884-85 that “no schools are more subject to fluctuations than this class of schools. They are chiefly attended by adult day-labourers who can hardly be expected to attend them regularly. During the harvest season the schools are almost empty; but when there is cessation of work they are more or less full. They can therefore more properly be called season schools..... It is not that the desire for such schools does not at all exist on the part of those for whom these schools are intended, but that desire is of a temporary nature, and as soon as the novelty of the thing begins to wear away it also bids fare with it. It is, however, but quite natural that after a day's hard physical labour the mind should repel an attempt calculated to lay a heavy strain upon it at night. The school-work therefore, is interesting only at the beginning. And hence the older the school grows in existence, the feebler is the attendance in proportion. Sometimes these schools are applied for by villagers who are put up by the Vernacular School-masters, who want to add thereby three or four rupees to their already scanty monthly income; sometimes people want them simply to satisfy their curiosity.”* In 1896-97, the Director of Education wrote that “this class of school is one that has no great vitality

or efficiency..... The Department does not force the existence of these schools but encourages them as funds permit. More than this is not, I think, desirable at present.”* In 1901-02, the Director reported that, in so far as the night schools are concerned, “there is no chance that they will prosper..... In many cases the schools serve no purpose but to enable the master to draw his extra allowance.”¶ In 1911-12, he again reported, “from my 15 years experience as an Inspector I fear that there is little future for such schools; as Dr. Selby reported five years' ago the only chance is probably in large centres of population where men are engaged in mechanical and industrial pursuits.”§ With such views held by the highest officials, it is no surprise that the night schools did not develop on any large scale during this period.

Some idea of the working of these schools is available in the Reports of the Director of Education. As stated already, these institutions differed from the present classes for Social Education in so far as they admitted young children who could not attend primary schools during the day. They were, therefore, called “night schools” and not adult education classes, and their returns were included under Primary Education. In some of these, the curriculum was restricted to the three R's; but in many schools, the actual curriculum of the primary schools was followed. There were no special books for these classes and the books meant for children in primary schools were used in them. Some of these classes were conducted by Government; a much larger number was conducted by the local bodies; and, after provision to assist them was made in the Grant-in-Aid Code, they were conducted by private agencies as well. In some of the schools, an attempt was made to teach those subjects which were demanded by the students. For example, the teaching of Modi was introduced in several schools because the labourers desired it; and there is a mention of a Sanskrit night school in Sholapur in which Sanskrit was taught in the old way.† But such variations must have been very few. The average night school was hardly different from a primary school, conducted at night, to which adults were also admitted.

As a result of the First World War, the interest in Adult Education was revived and greater attention began to be paid to the movement after 1916-17. Hence the increase in the number of night schools as well as in their enrolment that is seen in the statistics of 1921-22 given in the preceding table. Of the new ideas that were adopted at this time, the scheme of co-operative night schools deserves some notice. These‡ schools were started in 1918 from the funds donated by Sir Vithaldas Thakersey. Their object was to educate the adult members of the local co-operative societies and their children. The course of instruction covered a period of two years and included reading up to Vernacular Standard IV, writing, elementary arithmetic, and a knowledge of local geography and of the co-operative society's accounts. The education was given free. There

* Report, 1896-97, p. 33.

¶ Report, 1901-02, p. 48.

§ Report, 1911-12, p. 28.

† Report, 1880-81, p. 59.

‡ There were 37 in 1921-22.

were examinations at the end of each year and successful students were given rewards of Rs. 5 and Rs. 15 at the first and second year's examinations. The idea, like several others evolved by the bureaucratic administration, was excellent; but it was neither kept up nor expanded. In 1924, the Director reported that "the whole scheme fell to the ground on account of the death of Sir Vithaldas and the discontinuance of the provision of the funds."*

9 (3). *Adult Education (1921-37)*.—With the transfer of Education to Indian control, a greater interest became manifest in the field of Adult Education. Larger funds were sanctioned for the purpose and the greater interest shown by the Ministers led to the inclusion of a special Chapter on Adult Education in the Annual Report of the Director of Education—a practice which continues to this day.

An attempt was also made during this period to broaden the concept of Adult Education. The adult schools of this period were divided into three groups; (1) secondary schools, (2) primary schools, and (3) special schools. *The secondary schools for adults* were really high schools conducted at night.† They followed the same curriculum as that of the ordinary secondary schools, but worked at night in order to enable persons who were employed during the day to continue their education at the secondary stage. These were mostly located in Bombay City and other big population centres. *The primary schools for adults* were similar to the night schools of the earlier period; but they now ceased to admit young boys and were restricted to adults only. This was, of course, a step in the right direction. But even during this period, no special books were prepared for adults and the text-books and curriculum of the primary schools used to be adopted in these adult classes also. In other words, no attempt had yet been made to understand adult psychology and to develop literature and teaching methods suitable for them. The adults were merely regarded as grown-up children and taught by methods generally designed for primary schools. The only redeeming feature, however, was that efforts were made in some of these schools, to make the instruction interesting by arranging general lectures, magic-lantern shows, etc. *The special schools for adults* were mainly meant for women. They taught the three R's; English where necessary; first aid, and sewing. They are of special significance as showing that the Adult Education Movement had now entered the neglected field of the education of women. Lastly, efforts were also made during this period to develop adult education proper and encouragement was given to associations like the Adult Education Society, Bombay, Dnyanprasarak Mandali, Bombay, the Bhandarkar Oriental Research Institute, Poona, the Royal Asiatic Society, Bombay, to arrange lectures on various useful topics. Besides, the section of Visual Education which was specially organised during this period was largely used to arrange lectures on various topics for the public at large.

* Report, 1926-27, p. 207.

† Prior to 1921, these were regarded as secondary schools proper and the same practice was restarted after 1937

Qualitatively, therefore, this period marks a step ahead. But quantitatively, it did not show good results as the following statistics will show:—

TABLE No. 9 (2)

Schools for Adults (1921-1937)

Year.	Number of Schools for Adults.	Number of Students.
1921-22	168	5,175
1922-27	202	7,178
1931-32	159	5,974
1936-37	180	6,299

In so far as the numbers are concerned, therefore, the movement may be said to have been almost stationary during this period. But on the financial side, the economic depression of this period actually led to a great curtailment of the Government contribution to the expenditure on this branch of education. In 1921-22, the total expenditure on primary schools for adults was Rs. 57,867 of which Rs. 16,196 were contributed by Government. In 1936-37, the total expenditure on these schools increased to Rs. 87,343 but the contribution of Government fell down to Rs. 6,767. The figures need no comments.

9 (4). *Adult Education (1937-46)*.—The foregoing review will show that the problem of Social Education had not at all been dealt with adequately prior to 1937. When the First Popular Ministry, therefore, came into power under Provincial Autonomy, Government decided to organise a planned drive to liquidate the illiteracy of the masses. For this purpose, a Special Committee to examine the problem was appointed under the Chairmanship of Dr. Clifford Manshardt.* On the recommendation of this Committee, Government appointed a Provincial Board for Adult Education with Shri S. R. Bhagwat as its Chairman. The Board submitted a scheme to Government under which individuals and associations doing adult education work were to get themselves registered with the Board and were to be given liberal grants for the literacy classes conducted by them. The Board also recommended that, in view of the paucity of funds available, the scope of Adult Education should be restricted to the imparting of literacy and that adult education work at other levels should, for the time being, be left to unaided private enterprise. These recommendations were accepted by Government and the work of adult education was started on a much larger scale than in the past.

* For the details of the recommendations of the Committee, see Report of the Adult Education Committee, 1937.

While adult education classes were started in all parts of the State, the work received a great impetus in the City of Bombay. Here, a large scale literacy campaign was organised in May, 1939, with the two objects of (1) rousing public conscience to the need of education for the illiterate adult population and (2) spreading literacy. For this purpose, a large number of classes were started, partly with the help of public donations and partly from Government grant. The original idea was to maintain these classes for one month only; but as the work was extremely successful, Government decided to put it on a permanent basis, appointed a Special Committee for the purpose and sanctioned a liberal grant-in-aid. Since then, the literacy campaign in the City of Bombay has been consistently maintained on a large scale.

Government also accepted a scheme submitted by the Provincial Board for Adult Education with the object of organising a net-work of reading-rooms and libraries in villages in order to prevent the literate adults from relapsing into illiteracy. Under this scheme, a village library or reading-room was entitled to receive a grant of Rs. 50 in the first year and Rs. 18 in every subsequent year, subject to certain conditions and further subject to a local contribution of equal amount being available. This scheme also was well received by the public and a large number of village reading rooms and libraries came to be organised during this period.*

The quantitative achievements of this period are shown in the following table:—

TABLE No. 9 (3)

Literacy Classes in Bombay State (excluding Bombay City) (1937-46)

Year.	No. of Classes.	No. of Adults on Rolls.	No. of Adults made literate.
1937-38	240	8,073	Not available
1938-39	432	13,766	112
1939-40	1,085	53,378	13,208
1940-41	177	9,783	2,829
1941-42	658	22,507	6,877
1942-43	511	22,153	8,315
1943-44	492	14,530	6,810
1944-45	373	9,460	4,667
1945-46	733	18,660	9,895

* The history of this scheme is narrated in Chapter XV under "Libraries".

It will be seen that there is a big decline in the number of classes in 1940-41. This was due to a change of policy recommended by the Provincial Board for Adult Education. Owing to the liberal scheme of grant-in-aid sanctioned by Government, there was a phenomenal increase in the number of literacy classes during 1939-40. At one time, the number of classes reached 2,336 with an enrolment of 53,378. At this juncture, the Provincial Board for Adult Education recommended that the rate of grant-in-aid should be lowered with a view to reducing the total cost per adult made literate, and fixed at annas 10 for every adult made literate (or rupee one in places where there is no local board school) plus an equipment grant of Rs. 12 per class (the old rates were Rs. 5 per mensem plus Rs. 2 per adult made literate or Rs. 4 per adult made literate, and an equipment grant of Rs. 40 per class). This proposal was accepted by Government. Unfortunately, this reduction in the rate of grant proved fatal and by the end of the year, nearly 50 per cent. of the classes were closed and by the end of 1940-41, the number of classes in the State as a whole was reduced to 177 only. Government, therefore, reconsidered the problem and restored the old rates of grant-in-aid. This brought about some improvement in the situation. But the inability of the care-taker Government to generate the necessary amount of popular enthusiasm and the difficulties created by war conditions still proved to be major obstacles to progress and, even in 1945-46, the situation was far from satisfactory.

In the City of Bombay, however, the work had been entrusted to a special committee and hence the progress of adult literacy work continued unchecked throughout the period under review as the following statistics will show:—

TABLE No. 9 (4)

Literacy Classes in Bombay City (1937-46)

Year.	No. of Classes.	Adults Rolls.	No. of Adults made literate.
1939-40	1,002	19,068	15,068
1940-41	1,198	22,337	15,538
1941-42	1,133	20,967	10,908
1942-43	1,531	28,128	12,337
1943-44	1,073	21,214	14,230
1944-45	921	17,931	12,269
1945-46	1,275	25,575	19,178

The progress of expenditure on Adult Education during this period is given in the following table:—

TABLE No. 9 (5)

Expenditure on Adult Education (1937-46)

Year.					Expenditure from Govern- ment funds.
					Rs.
1937-38	7,580
1938-39	19,793
1939-40	1,17,833
1940-41	50,100
1941-42	1,11,936
1942-43	1,09,666
1943-44	1,06,068
1944-45	97,660
1945-46	1,25,960

N. B.—The statistics given in this table as well as in Table No. 9 (8) refer to Government expenditure only. The statistics of expenditure from other sources are not available.

9 (5). *Social Education (1946-55).*—The problem received a fresh impetus again when the Second Popular Ministry assumed office. According to the new scheme formulated at this time the concept of adult education was radically changed. So far, adult education had been treated as almost equivalent to adult literacy and the one dominating object of the whole movement was to teach the adults to read and write. In a country like India where about 80 per cent. of the people are still illiterate, literacy is a very important objective no doubt; and it is also true that a high priority has to be given to programmes of liquidating mass illiteracy when the education of such a country is being reconstructed. But there is another side to this picture which had been neglected so far and which was prominently stressed in the new scheme that was now undertaken. Literacy, by itself, cannot do much good to the masses and from the point of view of citizenship, it falls far short of the minimum education which must be given to every adult. It was, therefore, proposed now that, in a proper programme of adult education, the imparting of literacy must be combined with a good deal of general education which should include subjects like civics, personal and community hygiene, elementary history and geography, a broad outline of Indian cultural tradition, some knowledge of the political, social and economic problems facing the country and instruction in simple crafts. In short, adult education was to be intimately related to the every-day problems of life and cultural and recreational activities were to form an integral part thereof. This deepening of the concept of adult education was so radical that it was decided to give it a new name in order to distinguish it from the narrow outlook of the earlier days and it was henceforward designated as *Social Education*.

It was pointed out that this new movement of social education would not adversely affect literacy work as was feared in certain quarters. On the other hand, it was held that even the spread of literacy would be accelerated considerably if the new concept of social education was properly worked out. A constant complaint in all literacy classes is that the adults are not attracted to them; that their interest is not sustained for a sufficient time; and that as soon as the novelty of the situation wears off, their attendance begins to flag. There is, in consequence, a great wastage in the movement because large numbers of adults leave the classes before attaining literacy and because several of them do not make the necessary effort to maintain their reading habit after the literacy test is once passed. These disadvantages are sure to be reduced under the new plan. A social education class, if properly conducted, becomes a community centre with an emphasis on cultural and recreational activities. It can, therefore, attract the adults and maintain their interest much better than a mere literacy class. In fact, Social Education gives a sugar-coating to the rather uninteresting pill of mere literacy and helps the adult to swallow it more willingly. Even in the interest of literacy itself, therefore, it was now advocated that the new concept of social education was a better weapon to extend the movement on a larger scale and to make it popular with the masses than the old tradition of night schools or literacy classes.

This qualitative change was only one aspect of the new scheme. The other was that of extension, of developing the movement on a scale much larger than that attempted at any earlier period. For this purpose, it was decided to adopt the scheme of *compact areas* which had been recommended some time earlier by the Provincial Board for Adult Education. The Board had pointed out that, in the past, the literacy classes were started in a scattered manner—the initiative being left to any one who registers himself as an adult education worker—and hence considerable difficulties of supervision were created. Besides, it was not possible to create the necessary local atmosphere necessary for the successful working of literacy classes because, in any given area, the number of classes was very small. The Board, therefore, suggested that a better approach to the problem would be to select a compact area, to appoint a special Social Education Officer in charge, and to develop social education work in that area on as large a scale as possible. Social Education would then cease to be an individual enterprise and would become a reconstructional activity of the whole community. This plan, therefore, was taken up as an experimental measure and five compact areas were organised in 1945-46. Their number was then gradually increased till it reached 106 in 1950-51. It must be pointed out that social education classes outside the compact areas were allowed to be organised as in the past and were aided at the usual rates. The movement, therefore, was now being developed simultaneously on two fronts—an intensive drive in the compact areas and diffused individual activity in others.

This decision to organise social education work on an extensive scale naturally implied that a single Provincial Board for Adult Education would not be able to handle the entire volume of work. Government,

therefore, decided to replace the Board by three Regional Social Education Committees on a linguistic basis—one for Maharashtra, one for Gujarat, and one for Karnatak (1947). Full-time Secretaries of the status of Bombay Educational Service Class II and an adequate clerical staff were also sanctioned to each Committee. Further, District Social Education Committees were also formed in order to assist them in furthering social education work. Following the example of the special Social Education Committee in Bombay City, City Social Education Committees were constituted for Ahmedabad (1950-51), Poona (1950-51), Sholapur (1952-53), and Jalgaon (1953-54). Lastly, it was decided to use the agency of the Labour Department for organising social education work among the industrial workers and social education centres were started at Bombay, Ahmedabad, Sholapur, Jalgaon, Dhulia, Chalisgaon, Amalner, and Hubli. It will thus be seen that the organisational machinery now created was fairly adequate to cope with the large volume of work involved in developing Social Education on the scale contemplated by Government. It was also so designed as to secure the co-operation of prominent non-official workers and to harness their energy in deepening and broadening the movement.

Practical experience of the working of the above plans showed that they required modifications in several respects. The scheme of compact areas succeeded up to a point; and then unforeseen difficulties began to appear. The special officers appointed in charge of them complained that the primary teachers through whom most of the social education work was being organised were not amenable to their control and that they were not able to influence them to work on the desired scale. Besides, it often happens in administration that as soon as a special officer is appointed for any activity, other officers cease to take sufficient interest in it on the ground that it is not their job. The effects of such apathy are sometimes far greater than the advantages secured by the appointment of a special officer and occasionally it is discovered that a cause is more hampered than helped by the creation of a special agency to look after it. This experience was repeated in the field of Social Education and it was found that the Special Officers for Social Education did not receive that co-operation from other officers of the Education Department which they ought to have had. After a careful examination of the problem, therefore, it was decided to abolish the distinction between compact and non-compact area, to retrench the posts of special officers, and to make social education work an integral part of the duties of every Assistant Deputy Educational Inspector (1951). To enable them to devote adequate time to this activity, their number was suitably increased and the area entrusted to each of them was reduced. The reform secured some economy. The extent of social education work suffered for a time in the transitional stage; but within a year, the momentum of the work increased to a pitch which was even higher than in the past.

Similarly, it was found that the conduct of social education classes under the Labour Department led to duplication. It involved extra expenditure without any proportional gain in efficiency. This scheme was, therefore, discontinued in 1952 and the work formerly done by the Labour Department was transferred to the City or Regional Social Education

PROGRESS OF SOCIAL EDUCATION

(1939-1955)

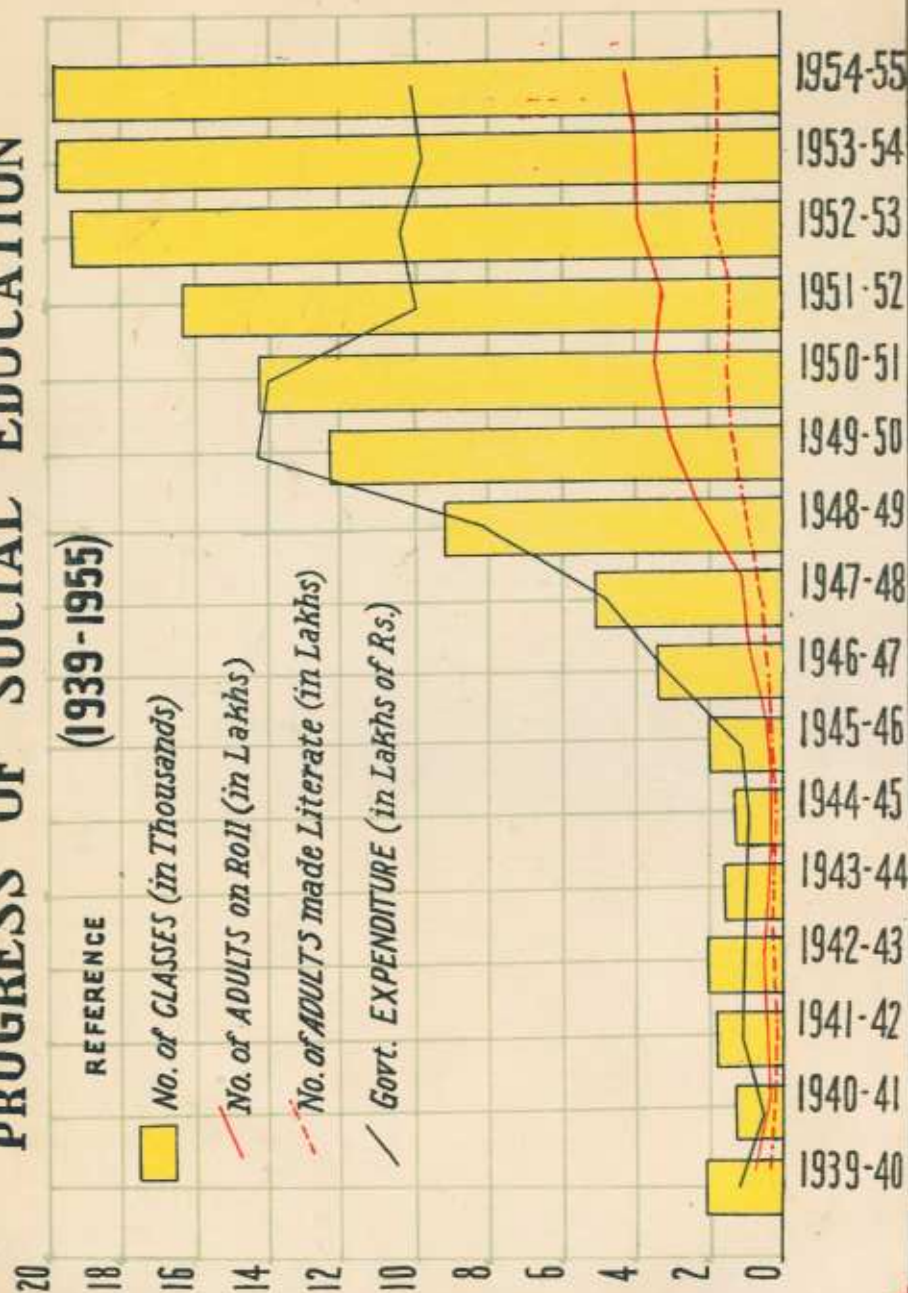
REFERENCE

No. of CLASSES (in Thousands)

No. of ADULTS on Roll (in Lakhs)

No. of ADULTS made Literate (in Lakhs)

Govt. EXPENDITURE (in Lakhs of Rs.)



Committees concerned. They were given an additional grant-in-aid for this purpose on a hundred per cent. basis in 1952-53 and on a 50 per cent basis in subsequent years. Moreover, it was found that the experiment of nominating independent District Social Education Committees did not work satisfactorily. In 1952-53, therefore, it was decided to discontinue them. Instead, every District Development Board was required to form a special Sub-committee for Social Education. Several District Development Boards have already set up such Committees and, as a measure of co-ordination, this reform has yielded better results.

On the quantitative side, the progress of social education work during this period was fairly satisfactory as the following statistics will show:—

TABLE No. 9 (6)

Social Education Classes in Bombay State (excluding City Areas given in the next table) (1946-55)

Year.	No. of Classes.	No. of Adults on Rolls.	No. of Adults made Literate.
1946-47	1,818	48,575	22,300
1947-48	3,206	86,109	44,600
1948-49	7,382	1,84,299	78,285
1949-50	10,541	2,64,731	1,07,042
1950-51	11,612	2,72,719	1,14,590
1951-52	13,493	2,51,555	89,248
1952-53	16,229	3,10,670	1,41,656
1953-54	16,483	3,06,844	1,26,420
1954-55	16,515	3,30,899	1,19,458

TABLE No. 9 (7)

Social Education Classes under City Social Education Committees (1946-55)

Name of the City Committee.	Year.	No. of Classes.	No. of Adults on Rolls.	No. of Adults made Literate.
Bombay	1946-47	1,634	32,261	22,203
	1947-48	1,993	38,472	19,387
	1948-49	1,839	40,193	22,519
	1949-50	1,786	44,275	25,658
	1950-51	2,367	59,867	30,540
	1951-52	2,424	61,164	40,325
	1952-53	2,609	65,677	34,379
	1953-54	2,661	69,038	36,796
	1954-55	2,562	66,554	37,734

TABLE NO. 9 (7)—*contd.*

Name of the City Committee.	Year.	No. of Classes.	No. of Adults on Rolls.	No. of Adults made Literate.
Ahmedabad ...	1950-51	143	3,802	1,124
	1951-52	187	4,364	1,725
	1952-53	138	3,115	1,308
	1953-54	233	5,311	1,948
	1954-55	299	8,633	3,430
Poona ...	1950-51	181	3,041	843
	1951-52	297	5,785	2,745
	1952-53	247	4,896	2,821
	1953-54	213	3,076	2,272
	1954-55	193	3,217	1,847
Sholapur ...	1952-53	76	2,185	808
	1953-54	79	2,261	1,663
	1954-55	115	6,989	2,883
Jalgaon ...	1953-54	16	150	39
	1954-55	43	630	314

On the *qualitative* side also, a good deal of progress became manifest. Even as early as in 1938, the First Popular Ministry had given a new orientation to the conduct of literacy classes by introducing special books for adult illiterates and by adopting newer methods of teaching suited to adult psychology. In fact, the adults ceased to be treated as grown-up children for the first time and intensive efforts were made to make a literacy class interesting and attractive. This change necessarily implied a training of workers in the new techniques of adult education and, therefore, a special scheme for the purpose was sanctioned in 1941. The Bombay City Social Education Committee did a good deal of pioneer work in this field and the methods of adult education began to be studied intensively as a special subject worthy of the attention of educationists. When the very concept of adult education was deepened into that of social education, the need for training teachers to give them the new orientation became even more urgent. Government, therefore, both intensified and extended its efforts to train social education workers. In a scheme adopted for the purpose, training classes are held during vacations at the Government training colleges. Each class takes in at least 20 workers and is spread over two weeks. Every trainee selected for the class is given a stipend of Rs. 20 and free hostel accommodation. These classes are conducted by specially selected inspectors and a suitable syllabus for them has been prepared by the Department. Every trainee is also required to make at least 10 adults literate in the year after his training; in default, he is required to refund the amount of the stipend granted. Besides, seminars on Social Education are organised by the Assistant Deputy Educational Inspectors in every district.

As stated earlier, books written specially for the illiterate adults began to be prepared and used in the literacy classes since 1938. The need of producing special literature for illiterate adults as well as neo-literates having been thus recognised, considerable progress was made in this field also. Several publications were brought out by the Bombay City Social Education Committee which also publishes a periodical for the neo-literates. The Regional Social Education Committees also took up the problem and have brought out a good number of publications besides conducting their own periodicals. A Literary Workshop, financed by the Ford Foundation, was conducted at Panhala, District Kolhapur, under the supervision of Acharya S. J. Bhagwat. Writers in Gujarati, Hindi and Marathi attended the Workshop and received training in the preparation of suitable books for neo-literates. The magnitude of the problem is indeed vast and the achievements in this direction cannot, therefore, be considered satisfactory. It may, however, be stated that the different aspects of the problem have now been fully studied and that a good beginning for the production of suitable literature for the neo-literates has already been made.

In so far as the fundamental concept of deepening the movement into social education is concerned, the progress achieved so far still leaves a good deal to be desired. It is true that more extensive efforts are now made to enrich the work of the social education classes and to raise them beyond the drudgery of mere literacy. Recreational programmes, extension lectures, celebrations of important occasions and festivals, film-shows, magic lantern lectures, film-strip lectures etc. are now more commonly introduced in the work of social education classes than what was common ten years ago. The co-operation of other Departments such as the Publicity Department is now available to a greater extent than in the past. In spite of these bright features, however, the average social education class has not been able to rise much above the literacy level as yet. A better type of teachers, more intensive training, a larger supply of equipment, and a more organised effort at co-ordination of different Departmental activities is still indicated.

An important development of this period is the large emphasis now placed on post-literacy work. In the early days of the movement, it was a common experience that the contact of the illiterate adult with the adult education movement ceased as soon as he passed the literacy test. The average time spent in a class for attaining literacy was so short that it did not generally develop any deeper interests which might be carried over and it was feared that adults who had passed the literacy test might again relapse into illiteracy in large numbers. To prevent this eventuality, to lengthen the average duration of education of illiterate adults, and to create reading interests that might be carried over into later life, post-literacy classes were now organised and a special grant-in-aid was sanctioned for them. A second test of literacy was also devised and an adult who had attended the post-literacy class was expected to pass it. This healthy activity has spread a good deal, although its further extension is greatly needed.

Among the several measures adopted by Government for awakening public conscience to the need of Social Education and for the spread of

literacy, three deserve mention. The first is the celebration of the All-India Social Education Day. The proposal was put forward by the Government of India in 1951 and since then, the 1st of November is being celebrated as the Social Education Day throughout the State.* The programmes arranged on this occasion include social education propaganda through processions, *prabhat pheris*, meetings, radio broadcasts and press articles; collection of donations from the public; expansion of actual educational work; and explaining the Five Year Plan and Community Development Project Scheme etc. to the people. The celebration is becoming popular and a good deal of enthusiasm is generated on the occasion. Government servants belonging to all Departments as well as members of the public take keen interest in the celebrations. Secondly, Government are now encouraging the organization of recreational activities in all social education classes on an extensive scale. These include *bhajan*s, *kirtan*s, dramas, vocal and instrumental music, story-telling, cinema and magic lantern shows, excursions, sports and physical feats, folk-dances, playing of gramophone records etc. Some grants are also sanctioned for the purpose and the work is proving to be of good help in increasing and maintaining attendance at social educational classes. Thirdly, Government issues merit certificates signed by the Secretary to Government in the Education Department, to students, teachers and institutions who have done very good work in the cause of Social Education. This encouragement also is proving useful in practice.

Another valuable development is the organisation of Social Education in the Community Projects and the National Extension Service Blocks. In every area selected for this intensive work, there is a Social Education Officer whose main duty is to co-ordinate the activities of the various Departments working in the area and to integrate social education work with the general drive for rural reconstruction. In the scheme of Social Education, as it is now being worked out under the Community Project Administration, social education classes are organised with a special emphasis on recreational activities, imparting of general information and development of reading rooms and libraries. Women's clubs and youth-clubs are also organised, wherever possible; and through them, the people get an opportunity to give practical effect to the ideas which they acquire in the course of Social Education. The movement developed on this pattern is found to have greater vitality and is proving to be more attractive to the average villager. The work is still in its early experimental stage but its potentialities are obviously great.

The following table shows the total expenditure incurred from Government funds on Social Education. It must be remembered that in actual

*From the current year 1st December will be celebrated as the Social Education Day.

practice it is being very largely supplemented by private donations and contributions:—

TABLE No. 9 (8)

Expenditure on Social Education (1946-55)

Year.					Expenditure from Government Funds.
					Rs.
1946-47	3,23,948
1947-48	4,84,825
1948-49	8,10,873
1949-50	14,30,000
1950-51	14,00,000
1951-52	10,00,000
1952-53	10,40,203
1953-54	9,78,059
1954-55	10,02,895

9 (6). *Programmes of Future Development*.—The foregoing account of the development of Social Education since 1855, and especially since 1937, will show that in spite of all the efforts made so far, the social education movement has gathered neither the depth nor the extent which are obviously essential if the huge problem of adult illiteracy in our country is to be solved satisfactorily within a reasonable time. The organization of the movement on an adequate scale can be done on a payment basis. But this will require a few crores of rupees which cannot be spared in the near future in view of the higher priority which has to be accorded to other programmes of economic and educational reconstruction. The alternative is to adopt some form of conscription. This is frequently advocated in academic discussions; but the public conscience is not sufficiently aroused at the moment to make the adoption of the scheme feasible; and even if it were to be forced upon the people by an enthusiastic administrator, the chances of its being successfully worked out in practice are highly doubtful in the present circumstances. With the limited resources that are now available, and in view of the limited extent of popular enthusiasm and support to the movement, the only practicable plan seems to be to make an institutional approach to the problem. Under this plan, it would be an integral part of the work of every educational institution to transform itself into a Community Centre and to organise social education work in its immediate neighbourhood. The scale of the movement would thus be expanded, its continuity and stability would be ensured, and its depth would be increased without leading to a prohibitive increase in expenditure. It is on this basis that the work in the Second Five Year Plan has been outlined and it is hoped that it would

yield much better results than what have been obtained so far. Besides, the Scheme of Community Projects and National Extension Service Blocks is proposed to be expanded so that the latter will cover the whole country by the end of the second plan period. As stated already, social education work forms an important part of this scheme and an attempt would be made to explore its potentialities as largely as possible.

On the qualitative side, it has been shown already that the correct lines of policy have been discovered and that a good beginning has been made. All that is required is the provision of larger funds. With these being made available in the Second Five Year Plan, the depth of the movement is expected to improve side by side with its expansion contemplated under the institutional approach.

CHAPTER X

PHYSICAL EDUCATION

10 (1). *Physical Education prior to 1882.*—Although schools of the modern type began to be established in the State since 1818, Physical Education received no place in the curricula or activities of these early institutions. Their primary object was to spread Western science and literature and the teachers were generally so intent on cramming facts into the heads of their pupils that they had neither the leisure nor inclination to give any attention to their bodies. Until 1855, therefore, it may be said that Physical Education of students was totally neglected.

Things began to change a little after the creation of the Department. The principals of the colleges and the headmasters of high schools who happened to be interested in the subject began to take some steps for providing facilities for Physical Education in their institutions. Thus in 1862-63, we are told that "the liberality of Mr. Cowasjee Jehangir enabled the Elphinstone College to establish a Cricket Club."* Similarly, the Poona College had a "Mulikamb and a Gymnastic trainer" on its staff and it was reported, as early as in 1867, that the students of the College had "expressed a desire to have provision made for athletic sports." This was complied with and in 1870, Principal Wordsworth observed that "perhaps in time the students may take to some of our English games, to which at present they show little inclination." By 1881, however, the College had clubs for boating, cricket, and tennis, and the not very confident prediction of Mr. Wordsworth had been more than realised.† Similarly, in the Government high schools also, some of the headmasters who were keenly interested in Physical Education took steps to provide gymnasias in their schools. Indian games were introduced earlier, partly because they cost little and partly because their introduction was facilitated by the older traditions of the people. But instances of having established cricket clubs in the metropolitan high schools are also on

record. In the secondary schools, therefore, the provision of Physical Education was more or less an individual affair in this period and depended entirely on the interest shown by the headmasters. Although some provision for Physical Education was thus made in the Government schools, the subject was comparatively neglected in the private colleges and high schools of this period.

Miss Carpenter, the well-known social worker of England, who paid a visit to Bombay, in the sixties of the last century, pressed upon Government the urgent need of providing for the physical development of pupils in Government schools.* The subject thus received its first consideration as a matter of policy after 1866. One of the results of the suggestion made by Miss Carpenter was the introduction of Physical Education in the training colleges for men. In all these institutions, gymnastics and drill were introduced as part of the school routine, and primary teachers were taught gymnastic exercises as part of their training.† It is not possible, however, to know the extent and the manner in which Physical Education was introduced in the primary schools of this period as a result of this training. But here also, as in the secondary schools, the results must have depended almost entirely on the personal interest of the teacher concerned.

The second result of Miss Carpenter's suggestion was the insertion, in the revised Grant-in-aid-Code of 1877, of a clause which said that building grants for gymnasias may be considered on merits, and its third general result was to draw the attention of Departmental officers more specifically to the problem of Physical Education. The Educational Inspectors were now required to submit a special Report on Physical Education and these were annually published as an appendix to the Director's Report with effect from 1879-80.

10 (2). *Physical Education (1882-1912).*—The Indian Education Commission recommended that "physical development be promoted by the encouragement of native games, gymnastics, school drill, and other exercises suited to the circumstances of each class of school."‡ This recommendation was accepted by Government with the result that Physical Education began to receive much greater attention than in the past.

This trend was further strengthened by the agitation that was started by University authorities and leaders of Indian public opinion urging that more attention should be paid to Physical Education. In 1875, for example, Justice Gibbs warned the people in his convocation address that the mass of rising generation was being educated at too high a pressure and said, "In this generation you are destroying the bodies to strengthen the minds; in the next generation both mind and body will fail if you press them so hard."§ Similarly, Dr. R. G. Bhandarkar also referred to the problem in his convocation address of 1893 and observed that one of the causes of the early deaths of Hindu graduates was a want

* Report of the Director of Public Instruction, Bombay, 1866-67, p. 51. Regarding Miss Carpenter, see Chapter XI for details.

† Report of the Indian Education Commission, p. 127.

‡ Report, p. 127.

§ S. Rau: Convocation address, Bombay and Madras, p. 76.

* Report of the Director of Public Instruction, Bombay, 1862-63, p. 95.

† Deccan College (1851-1901), p. 92.

of a liking for physical exercise and suggested that "Physical exercise must be regularly resorted to by the young as well as the old, if we are not to die off under the tension." Similarly, Justice Ranade also urged that physical exercise "should be made part of a college discipline, and allowance should be made for success in it, along with literary qualifications.* Examples like the above will show how the public opinion was gathering in support of Physical Education. It was but natural that this public demand should exert pressure on the policies of the Department and, consequently, one finds a much better development of Physical Education between 1882 and 1912 than in the earlier period.

Between 1882 and 1892, Government took a number of measures for the development of Physical Education. The Central Gymnasium in Bombay, named after Sir Dinsha Manekji Petit a little later, was given a building grant as well as a recurring grant for its staff on condition that it trained competent teachers of gymnastics.† This may be described as the first training scheme organised for the teachers of Physical Education in the State. Besides, Government granted play-grounds to schools wherever Government land was available and even grants in cash were paid for the purchase of play-grounds. All the Government high schools were provided with gymnasia and play-grounds. Equipment for Physical Education now began to be supplied to primary schools also and Inspectors were instructed to pay particular attention to Physical Education. School-gymkhanas became a more regular feature of secondary schools. European games like cricket, gymnastic drill, callisthenics, and Indian games, malkhamb, wrestling, etc. were among the usual physical activities of the schools. As yet no regular grants were instituted; but special grants for Physical Education were given for purchase of apparatus.

Early in 1894, it was suggested to Government "that in the Arts and Professional Colleges and High Schools attendance at the gymnasium or membership of the cricket, tennis or boat clubs, where these exist, should be made compulsory and not left optional as is usual at present. In support of this suggestion the precedent of the male training or normal colleges where a scale has been laid down for physical exercises in which the students are examined and marks are given and taken into account when certificates are granted, was cited, and it was urged that as attendance in the lecture rooms is compulsory in the sense that a student is not permitted to appear at any of the higher examinations of the University who has not attended a certain proportion of lectures, the principal of the college having to certify the fact of his attendance in the gymnasium should be equally compulsory. It was thought that a student might be allowed his choice of the particular form of exercise which would suit his need and aptitude, provided that a certificate of his having undergone physical training of some kind for a certain number of days was required as a guarantee that each student had paid attention to the improvement of his body as well as of his mind."‡

* Report of the Director of Public Instruction, Bombay, 1894-95, Appendix I, p. 1 xx.

† G.R., E.D., No. 1812 of 9-10-1888 and 2328 of 3-11-1890.

‡ Report of the Director of Public Instruction, Bombay, 1894-95, Appendix I.

This proposal was circulated to the heads of colleges and high schools; but the response was not favourable. The general feeling was that the analogy of the training colleges would not apply to day schools and that the introduction of Compulsory Physical Education would involve heavy expenditure which the private schools would not be able to bear unless liberal grants were given. After a careful consideration of the replies received, Government came to the conclusion that there was "no need for insisting on compulsory attention to athletic exercises. The reports received and the account of physical education appended to the Director of Public Instruction's annual report show that there is a distinct voluntary inclination towards athletic exercises, and His Excellency in Council believes that that is a better way of inducing a general appreciation of active out-door exercise than by making it a part of the college or school curriculum, and there is not such unanimity of opinion as to the merits of compulsion amongst the gentlemen consulted as to render it in any way incumbent on Government to forego its own view. Teachers of gymnastics are entertained on the staffs of the Deccan College, every Training College for males and almost every High School, and Government spend on an average about Rs. 13,000 every year in providing the salaries of such instructors, gymnasia, gymnastic apparatus and play-grounds. Where Government land is available sites have also been given for gymnasia or play-grounds. Having regard to the funds at their disposal, Government are already doing all they can to place the means for athletic exercises within the reach of students. For the present His Excellency in Council is satisfied with the progress that has already been made, but the efforts to encourage the appreciation of active out-door exercise will not be diminished, and His Excellency hopes that Municipalities will co-operate by providing public recreation grounds for their rate-payers out of Municipal funds. Possibly Government may be able to assist their efforts in this direction by the grant of sites on favourable terms. His Excellency in Council will watch with interest the voluntary movement, and if it continues at its present rate of progress the necessity for compulsion will not arise."*

It is an idle speculation to imagine what might have happened if Physical Education had really been made compulsory in 1894-95. But one cannot help feeling that a good opportunity was lost for no insuperable difficulties. During the next eighteen years, therefore, Physical Education continued to plod on along the general lines indicated in the above Resolution of Government.

As time passed on, the officers of the Department became more conscious of the health of the school children and the hygienic aspects of education began to receive much better attention. There was also a realisation that Physical Education would improve the discipline of the schools and exert a favourable influence on the behaviour of the boys. A gradual feeling began, therefore, to develop that the policy laid down in 1894-95 had become obsolete and that the time to give a new lead had at last

* Report of the Director of Public Instruction, Bombay, 1894-95, Appendix I (The whole correspondence on the subject is printed in this appendix).

arrived. Plans for the training of teachers of Physical Education and the organisation of physical activities in schools on modern lines were, therefore, prepared and put into effect in 1913.

10 (3). *Physical Education (1912-37)*.—The drive for educational reform which was started by Curzon in the early years of this century was reflected in this field also and, in 1913, Mr. P. C. Wren was placed on special duty to train teachers because it was realized that a cadre of efficient teachers was the very backbone of a successful programme of Physical Education. Mr. Wren conducted a class at Poona which "was attended by 27 Government teachers, 7 inspecting officers, and 4 teachers from aided schools. The work done was both practical and theoretical. Lectures were given on physiology, personal hygiene, the theory of muscular development, organic health, and general physical culture; demonstrations were given of exercises designed to develop and strengthen specific organs and muscles; and the class was instructed in the correct performance of selected exercises for boys, both junior and senior."* As a result of this class, the drill system devised by Mr. Wren was adopted in almost all Government schools. It was soon reported that the system answered its purpose very well and that the exercises served as an excellent means of relaxation in the course of class lessons.† But mainly owing to the small number of teachers trained, the work of Mr. Wren did not exercise any large scale or lasting influence on the movement of Physical Education.

Government, therefore, decided to make more permanent arrangements for the training of teachers in Physical Education. For this purpose, a special post of the Director of Physical Education was created in 1925 and Mr. F. Weber of the Y. M. C. A., Bombay, was appointed to it. "In the beginning he confined his attention chiefly to Bombay City, but classes for mofussil teachers were also held. In the following years he toured through Gujarat and Sind and gave an impetus to Physical Education by conducting courses of physical training and mass drill in some of the larger centres. Eight classes attended by 250 teachers were held in Bombay for a duration varying from a fortnight to six weeks. The system advocated by Mr. Weber was taken up in Government secondary schools and given considerable publicity. In June 1927, Mr. Weber was succeeded by Dr. A. G. Noehren as Director of Physical Education, but owing to financial stringency his contract was terminated in 1928."‡ Mr. Weber and Dr. Noehren carried the work initiated by Mr. Wren a good deal further. But they could not succeed in making any lasting impression on the programmes of Physical Education in schools, partly because they had no training institution to work through and partly because the continuity of their work was broken by the retrenchment consequent upon the economic depression of 1929.

A pioneer experiment in Physical Education undertaken by the University of Bombay during this period deserves special notice. "The Principals of the three Arts Colleges at Poona (Principal Rawlinson, Principal

Kanitkar, and Principal Shah)", writes the Physical Education Committee of 1927, "have for more than one year successfully carried out a scheme of compulsory physical training of the students of these colleges. To begin with, all the students were medically examined and defectives were weeded out. The students who were declared fit, between 1000 and 1100, were divided into batches of 20 each. A head-instructor was placed in charge of not more than 7 batches and members of the staff from the Colleges also assisted. The Military Authorities at Poona also co-operated. These batches of students took a $\frac{3}{4}$ hour's course from 6-45 to 7-30 every morning. In order to ensure discipline and to sustain the interest and enthusiasm of the students the training was divided into:—

- (a) Falling in, roll call, number off and double march (5 minutes);
- (b) Training of individual batches in their respective courses (20 minutes);
- (c) Lively and vigorous games like Foot-ball, Rugby Ball, Basketball, Atyapatya, Kho-kho, etc., in rotation (15 minutes);
- (d) Mass Parades (10 minutes).

The courses of physical training adopted were in three alternatives, viz., (a) European Physical Training, (b) Indian Gymnastics and (c) Surya Namaskars. Students were allowed to select one out of the three. The scheme created great enthusiasm among the students and has worked very successfully for over three college terms. The interesting part of this experiment is that gymnastics, games and drill have been co-ordinated and a touch of military training has been given with a view to create interest."*

In 1927, Government appointed a special Committee under the Chairmanship of Shri K. M. Munshi to study the problem of Physical Education in the State. It was directed (1) to review the measures taken in the past for the physical training of the pupils in primary and secondary schools, (2) to determine the results achieved by these measures, and (3) to suggest further measures for the improvement of Physical Education in general. The Committee made several useful recommendations on a rather ambitious scale. They included (1) the creation of a Central Board of Physical Education, (2) the organisation of a regular Physical Education Section in the Education Department under the control of a Director of Physical Education who would be assisted by a number of Deputy Directors of Physical Education for Boys' Schools, a Directress of Physical Education for Girl's Schools, and a number of Supervisors of Physical Education under them, and (3) the setting up of a number of Training Institutions for the preparation of teachers of Physical Education. But unfortunately the report of the Committee was submitted in 1929, the year in which the world economic depression began, and consequently no action was taken on its recommendations on the ground of financial stringency.

It will be seen from the above review that Government was not able to take adequate measures for the development of Physical Education

* Report of the Director of Public Instruction, Bombay, 1913-14, p. 34.

† Ibid, 1916-17, p. 51.

‡ Report of the Physical Education Committee, 1937, p. 5.

* Report of the Physical Education Committee, 1927, p. 17.

during this period. The deficiency, however, was made up to some extent by the growth of non-official efforts in this field. These were the days when the movement for national education was at its height; and as programmes of Physical Education were given a large emphasis in national education, the work of awakening public conscience in this matter and of training specialized teachers of Physical Education was undertaken, during this period, by several non-officials and popular institutions. Among these, mention must be made of Prof. Manikrao and his Jummadada Vyayam Mandir, Baroda; Swami Kuvalayananda and his Kaivalyadhama, Lonavala and Bombay; the Akhil Maharashtra Sharirik Shikshan Mandal, and the Maharashtra Vyayam Shala, Poona; Shri Chotubhai Purani and the Gujarat Vyayam Pracharak Mandal, Ahmedabad; and the Bombay Physical Culture Association, Bombay.* These institutions conducted regular short-term classes during holidays and trained an army of men and women in the indigenous physical activities who, in turn, promoted them in their respective localities. They also did every commendable work in popularizing Physical Education among the people and in promoting the cause of indigenous games and exercises. It may, therefore, be definitely said that it was mainly owing to their efforts that Physical Education showed an advance during this period.

10 (4). *Physical Education (1937-55)*.—With the advent of the Popular Ministry in 1937, Physical Education received a great impetus. As shown earlier, Government had taken the lead in developing Physical Education between 1865 and 1912, but popular enthusiasm had fallen short of the expectations. In the subsequent period, i.e. between 1912 and 1937, the non-official workers and institutions showed a great advance, but the official enterprise recorded a poor progress owing mainly to shortage of funds. With the assumption of office by a Popular Ministry, however, Government again took a very large part in the development of Physical Education. A number of Special Committees were appointed to investigate into and report upon the various aspects of the problem; large grants were sanctioned for the development of Physical Education; a special training institute was established for preparing teachers of physical education; a special Inspectorate for Physical Education was organised; and a special Board to advise Government on matters relating to Physical Education was created. Consequently, the development of Physical Education during this period was so great and comprehensive that it has no precedent in the history of education in the State. Its main events are narrated briefly in the paragraphs that follow.

(A) *Appointment of Committees*.—Immediately on coming into power, the Popular Ministry appointed a Special Committee with Shri Chotubhai Purani as Secretary and requested it (1) to suggest measures for the improvement and development of Physical Education in the State and (2) to draw up an actual scheme of Physical Education for primary and secondary

* The Hanuman Vyayam Mandal, Amravati, did very useful work in this field and a large number of teachers trained by it worked in the schools of this State during this period. The D. M. Petit Gymnastic Institute to which a reference has already been made also continued to do very valuable work during this period.

schools (1937). The Committee elected Swami Kuvalayananda as its Chairman and submitted a very valuable report which included the following recommendations among others:—

- (1) The ideal and objective of Physical Education should be redefined and the need of integrating Physical Education with intellectual education should be stressed;
- (2) The appointment of a Standing Advisory Committee to advise Government on all matters pertaining to Physical Education;
- (3) The appointment of a supervising staff for Physical Education;
- (4) The establishment of a Training Institute for the training of teachers in Physical Education;
- (5) Conducting Short Term Courses in Physical Education for secondary teachers;
- (6) The introduction of Physical Education as a compulsory subject in all schools;
- (7) The revival and inclusion of indigenous Physical Education activities in schools; and
- (8) The recognition of gymnasia for grant-in-aid.

Most of the recommendations of this Committee were accepted by Government and it may be said that the development of Physical Education in the State during the last eighteen years has been mainly guided by the recommendations of this Committee.

In 1945, Government appointed another Special Committee under the Chairmanship of Swami Kuvalayananda and requested it to report on the working and future development of the Training Institute for Physical Education, Kandivli, (which had been established as a result of the recommendations made by the first Physical Education Committee) as well as on the general progress of Physical Education in the State. This Committee submitted its report in 1946 and made the following principal recommendations:—

- (1) The ideal of world citizenship may be achieved through a properly organised programme of Physical Education;
- (2) The Board of Physical Education should be reconstituted with a full-time paid Secretary;
- (3) A new post of the State Inspector for Physical Education should be created and he should be given an adequate subordinate staff;
- (4) The conditions at the Training Institute for Physical Education, Kandivli, should be improved and its staff should be made permanent;
- (5) One Year Certificate Courses in Physical Education should be conducted for matriculate teachers and private institutions should be recognised for the purpose;
- (6) Private institutions should also be recognised for conducting Short-Term Courses in Physical Education for secondary teachers;
- (7) Short-Term Courses in Physical Education for primary teachers should be instituted;

(8) An examination in Physical Education should be instituted for all secondary school pupils;

(9) A Chief School Medical Officer should be appointed and a scheme for the medical inspection of school children should be organised; and

(10) The grants-in-aid to secondary schools and gymnasia should be increased from 25 per cent. to 33½ per cent.

Most of the recommendations of this Committee also were accepted by Government.

In 1952, Government appointed a third Special Committee under the Chairmanship of Swami Kuvalayananda and requested it to report on (1) the conversion of the Training Institute for Physical Education, Kandivli, into a National College for Physical Education and Recreation, (2) the organisation of research in Physical Education, and (3) the problem of recreation in general and training in leadership in particular. The Report of the Committee has since been published and is under the consideration of Government.

(B) *State Board of Physical Education.*—On a recommendation made by the Physical Education Committee, 1937, Government appointed a State Board of Physical Education under Government Resolution, Education Department, No. 5310 of 2nd May, 1938. It consisted of Swami Kuvalayananda (Chairman) and five other non-officials nominated by Government, and the Director of Education and the Director of Public Health as *ex-officio* members. The Principal of the Training Institute for Physical Education, Kandivli, worked as the Member-Secretary of the Board. On the recommendations of the Physical Education Committee, 1945-46, the Board was reconstituted and made to consist of 16 non-official and 5 official members. It was also given a full-time Secretary in the General Provincial Service, Class II, and an independent office in Bombay. On this Board also Swami Kuvalayananda continued as Chairman till 1950 when he resigned and Dr. K. S. Mhaskar was elected as Chairman. The Board played a very important role in the development of Physical Education in the State since 1937 and served as a valuable link between official and non-official thought on the subject. In 1953, however, it was abolished in consequence of the decision of Government to abolish all Advisory Boards as a measure of economy.

(C) *Training Institute for Physical Education, Kandivli.*—On a recommendation made by the first Physical Education Committee, 1937, this Institute was started at Kandivli in November, 1938 with the object of training teachers of Physical Education. It is a residential institution with accommodation for 100 trainees and charges no tuition fee whatsoever. The Principal course which it conducts is for the *Diploma Course in Physical Education* whose duration is one academic year and is open only to graduates of recognised universities. It starts early in September and is concluded at the end of May. Its theoretical part includes (1) Principles of Physical Education and Health Education, (2) Organization and Administration of Physical Education, (3) Materials and Method in Physical Education, (4) Anatomy and Physiology, (5) Physiology of Exercises, (6) Hygiene and Sanitation, (7) First Aid, (8) Medical Examination, (9) Massage, (10) Mother-Craft and Infant Care (for women only),

(11) Camping and Scouting, (12) Psychology, etc.; and its practical part includes Callisthenics, Light Apparatus work, *Asanas*, Dands, Baithaks, Indian Clubs, Combative activities, Malkhamb, Wrestling, Track and Field Events, Athletics, Camping, Minor games and Major games. At the end of the course, the students have to appear at an examination held in three parts, viz., Theory, Skills and Practice Teaching and those who pass it are awarded the Diploma in Physical Education (D. P. Ed.). The following table gives the enrolment of the students at the Institute from 1938-39 to 1954-55:—

TABLE No. 10 (1)

Enrolment of Students at the Training Institute for Physical Education, Kandivli (1938-55)

Year.	Total.	Year.	Total.
1938-39	86	1947-48	57
1939-40	73	1948-49	58
1940-41	85	1949-50	75
1941-42	62	1950-51	74
1942-43	72	1951-52	75
1943-44	52	1952-53	88
1944-45	38	1953-54	85
1945-46	30	1954-55	93
1946-47	37		

The main contribution of this Institute has been to supply qualified teachers of Physical Education to the secondary schools and colleges in the State and also to provide a cadre of trained Inspecting Officers for Physical Education. They have been able to give a new orientation to the concept of Physical Education and have succeeded in introducing better methods of teaching the subject. The Institute has also been able to overcome the old prejudice that Physical Education is a job of inadequately or poorly educated "drill masters" and has given large currency to the view that good intellectual education and good Physical Education ought to go hand-in-hand if an integrated personality is to be created.

(D) *Other Efforts for Training Teachers of Physical Education.*—The training of graduate teachers in Physical Education is done only at the Training Institute for Physical Education, Kandivli. As stated above, this Institute has supplied the educational institutions in the State with more than 1,100 trained teachers of Physical Education during the last 17 years. Great as this achievement is, it is obvious that even this leadership is inadequate to meet the total requirements of our school and colleges. Other efforts to train teachers of Physical Education had, therefore, to be undertaken simultaneously.

(1) *Short Term Courses.*—The first such effort to organise short term courses of three months duration for teachers of secondary schools was made at Kandivli from 1939-40 to 1945-46. Thereafter, the Gujarat Vyayam Pracharak Mandal, Ahmedabad, and the Maharashtra Mandal, Poona, were also recognised as suitable agencies for the conduct of such courses. The following table gives the number of teachers trained in these courses at the Training Institute for Physical Education, Kandivli since 1939-40:—

TABLE No. 10 (2)

Short Term Courses in Physical Education (1939-55)

Year.	No. of courses.	No. of candidates trained.
1939-40	2	287
1940-41	1	142
1941-42	1	171
1942-43	1	162
1945-46	1	96
1947-48	1	69
1948-49	2	249
1949-50	2	271
1950-51	1	104
1951-52	1	103
Total	13	1,654

N.B.—Besides these, the private institutions at Poona and Ahmedabad trained 69 and 21 teachers respectively.

Teachers undergoing training in these course were regarded as being on duty and received full pay during the period of their training from the schools concerned. In addition, they were paid travelling expenses to and from Kandivli and all expenses on their boarding and lodging at Kandivli were borne by Government.

These courses have provided a large number of assistance to help the Diploma-holders in their work in the schools and their contribution has been extremely valuable. They were, however, discontinued in 1952 partly as a measure of economy and partly because intensive courses of one year's duration began to be organised as a better alternative.

(2) *Certificate Course in Physical Education.*—The Physical Education Committee, 1945-46, recommended that a certificate course in Physical Education open to matriculates should be instituted in order to obtain younger persons for training. The duration of the course was to be one year and it was to emphasise the practical rather than the theoretical side of Physical Education. Government accepted this recommendation and declared that private institutions satisfying the prescribed conditions would be recognised for conducting this course and that they would be given a

grant-in-aid at 50 per cent. of the approved expenditure incurred by them.* Under these orders, the Samarth Vyayam Mandir, Dadar, the Chotubhai Purani Gujarat Vyayam Mahavidyalaya, Rajpipla, and the Sharirik Shikshan Vidyalaya conducted by the Shikshan Prasarak Mandali, Poona, have been granted permission to start this course and the following table shows the number of teachers trained therein so far:—

TABLE No. 10 (3)

Certificate Course in Physical Education (1949-55)

Year.	No. of teachers trained.
1949-50	26
1950-51	58
1951-52	63
1952-53	153
1953-54	217
1954-55	197

(3) *Other Courses.*—With a view to promoting the cause of Physical Education in secondary schools, Government conducted two courses for headmasters at the Training Institute of Physical Education, Kandivli. The principal object of these courses was to give headmasters an idea of the recent developments in Physical Education and to acquaint them with their share of responsibility in implementing the new policy laid down by Government. Participation in physical activities was voluntary and the course mainly consisted of lectures and observation of the playground work which the students of the diploma course went through every day. These courses were discontinued in 1941 as a measure of economy. Similarly, special courses lasting for about 8 weeks were organised for non-matriculate drill-teachers who had not completed ten years of service. The main object of the course was to give the trainees some idea of the important educational principles underlying Physical Education. Hence it emphasised the theoretical side of the problem and the new methods of teaching the subject based on sound psychological and educational principles. About 170 drill teachers have been trained in these courses so far. As most of the drill teachers in service have now been trained, the need to continue these courses has disappeared.

(E) *Training of Primary Teachers in Physical Education.*—In 1939, the syllabus of the training colleges for primary teachers was revised and a new orientation was given to the course of Physical Education provided therein. It was also laid down that teachers trained at Kandivli should be appointed on the staff of every training college. It was thus hoped that primary teachers trained under the new course would automatically receive the necessary training in Physical Education and that there would be no need to organise any further special training for them. The practical experience of this reform was very encouraging so that, in 1950-51, Government made Physical Education a certificate subject in the primary training college course. At present, therefore, every teacher who passes

* G.R., E.D., No. 6816 of 13-8-1947.

out of a training college necessarily receives a Certificate of attendance at the prescribed course in Physical Education, and it is felt that there is no need to organise any special training courses for these teachers.

But even this reform leaves out a very large number of primary teachers who have either been trained in the old days when Physical Education was not much emphasised or have remained untrained for some reason or the other. As Government had accepted the principle that every primary teacher must receive some training in Physical Education, it became necessary to conduct special training classes in Physical Education for these teachers. In the beginning, this work was entrusted to the local authorities who were required to conduct such special courses, the expenditure on them being admissible for grant-in-aid. Efforts made by the local authorities, however, were neither systematic nor regular. Government, therefore, decided to undertake this activity direct and sanctioned a detailed programme of training which was spread over two stages. In the *first stage*, which was to be completed in 1947-48, one training centre was organised in each district. About four good teachers from every taluka were selected and they were trained at this centre by the Assistant Deputy Educational Inspector for Physical Education in the district concerned. The training course lasted for 8 weeks and all expenses connected therewith were borne by Government. The *second stage* then began in 1948-49. Under it, the Deputy Educational Inspectors were directed to hold short term courses of 8 weeks' duration in each taluka with the help of the A. D. E. I. for Physical Education and the primary teachers already trained in Physical Education in the first stage. The Administrative Officers were requested to select about 20 to 25 teachers in each taluka for such training and it was planned that about 5,000 primary teachers should be so trained every year. The scheme was started with a budget provision of Rs. 2,30,000 in 1948-49; but due to various practical difficulties, both the scale and scope of the scheme had to be reduced in subsequent years. The following table shows the number of teachers trained under this scheme in both the stages and the expenditure incurred thereon since 1947-48:—

TABLE No. 10 (4)
Training of Primary Teachers

Year.	Number of teachers trained.			Expenditure incurred.
	1st stage.	2nd stage.	Total.	
				Rs.
1947-48	599	—	599	23,174
1948-49	65	2,055	2,120	86,882
1949-50	488	2,324	2,812	1,58,319
1950-51	249	1,266	1,515	85,439
1951-52	—	1,954	1,954	99,992
1952-53	—	1,631	1,631	89,978
1953-54	—	475	475	26,260
1954-55	—	524	524	29,294

(F) *Organization of a Special Inspectorate for Physical Education.*—Following the recommendations of the Physical Education Committee, 1937, Physical Education was made a compulsory subject for primary and secondary schools in 1938 and, in consequence, every school was required to make due provision for Physical Education. It was, therefore, felt necessary to organise a special Inspectorate to guide the schools on matters relating to Physical Education. Accordingly, Government created two posts of Assistant Deputy Educational Inspectors for Physical Education in each division in 1939. These officers were attached to the offices of the Divisional Educational Inspectors and their duties included (1) the inspection of Physical Education in all secondary schools, (2) the inspection of gymnasia, (3) the supervision of Physical Education in selected primary schools, and (4) the conduct of Short Term Courses in Physical Education for primary teachers. There was no post of a State Inspector for Physical Education at this period; but the A. D. E. Is. for Physical Education received guidance from the Chairman of the Board of Physical Education who used to tour extensively in the State and devote a good deal of his time to this work.

The Physical Education Committee, 1945-46, recommended that a post of the State Inspector for Physical Education should be created and that the subordinate special Inspectorate should be strengthened by the appointment of at least three A. D. E. Is. for Physical Education (two men and one woman) in each district. This recommendation was partly accepted by Government. The post of the State Inspector for Physical Education was created as proposed in B. E. S. Class I; but it was decided to appoint only two A. D. E. Is. for Physical Education in each district. Accordingly, 42 posts of such A. D. E. Is. were created (inclusive of the 10 posts already created between 1939 and 1947) between 1947 and 1949.* Subsequently, 2 posts were retrenched† and the post of the State Inspector for Physical Education was down-graded to Class II as a part of the Departmental re-organisation undertaken in 1953. At present, therefore, the special Inspectorate for Physical Education consists only of the State Inspector for Physical Education in B. E. S. Class II and 40 A. D. E. Is. for Physical Education who are distributed between the 28 districts of the State, the larger districts having 2, and the smaller 1.

The main duty of the State Inspector for Physical Education is to supervise the organisation of Physical Education in primary and secondary schools. In addition to this, the following duties have also been assigned to him:—

- (1) to assist the Director of Education in all administrative matters pertaining to Physical Education, recreation and youth welfare activities;
- (2) to conduct examinations for the Certificate Course in Physical Education;
- (3) to guide the tournaments in games and other activities and to pay grants for them;

* G. R., E. D., No. 7143 of 4-8-1947 (12 posts); G. R., E. D., No. 7143 of 10-5-1948 (10 posts) and G. R., E. D., No. 7143 of 10-10-1949 (10 posts).

† G. R., E. D., No. 1754 of 30-3-1954.

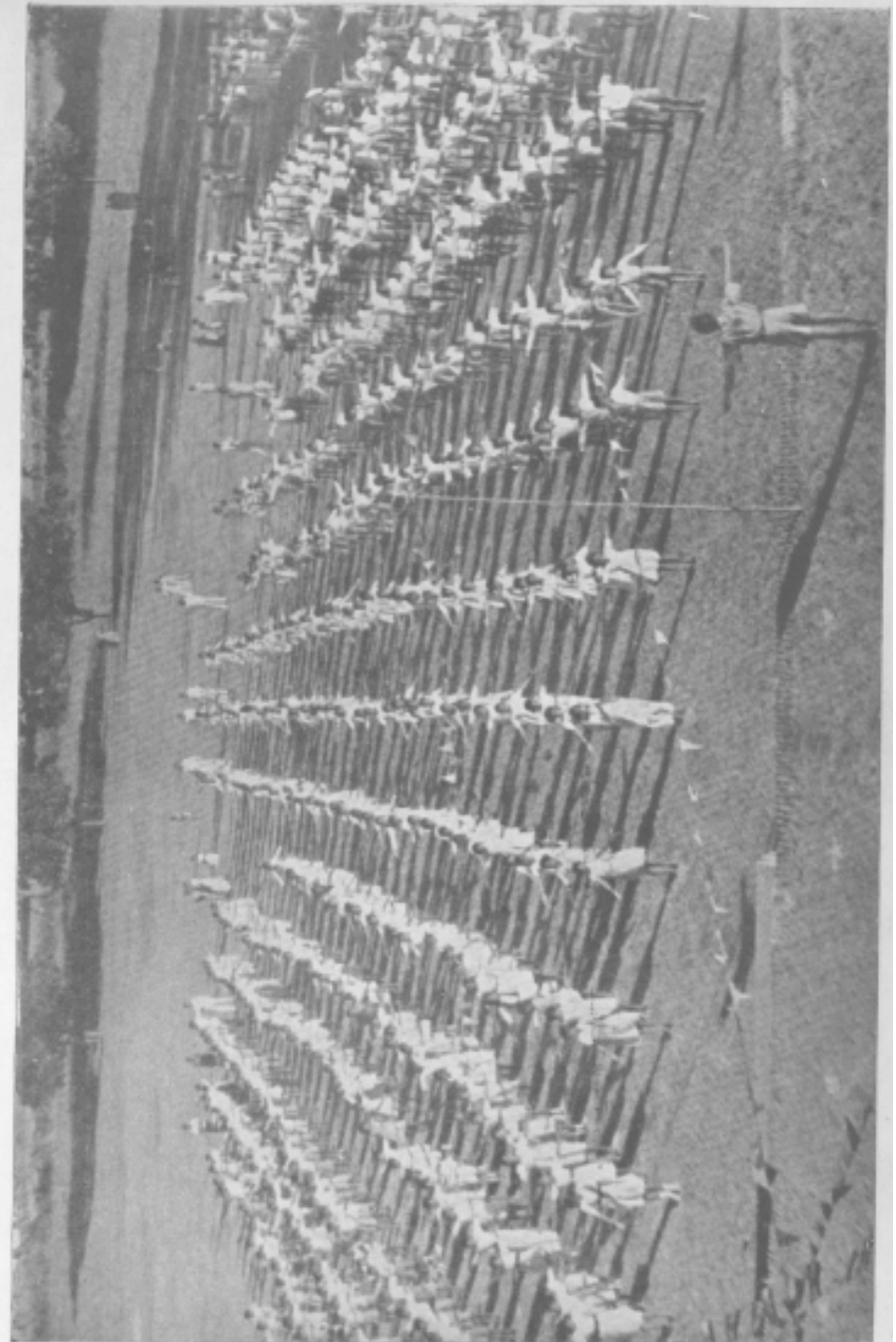
(4) to promote pupil leadership and to develop a spirit of social service among the pupils, through pupil leaders' classes, scouting, school volunteer corps, etc.; and

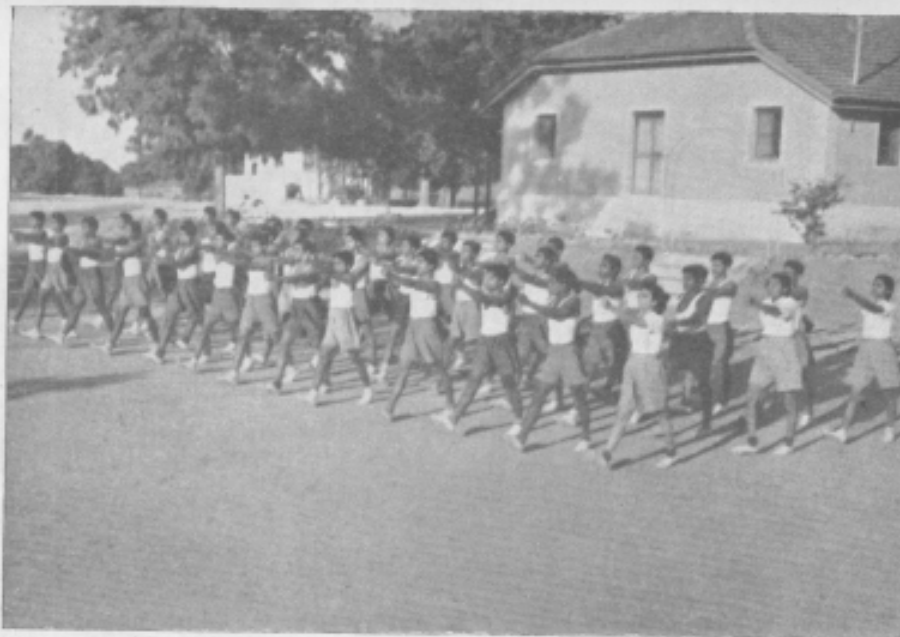
(5) to organise propaganda for Physical Education.

The special duties assigned to the A.D.E. Is. for Physical Education have already been described above. In addition, they assist the State Inspector for Physical Education to carry out the above duties in so far as their beats are concerned.

(G) *Organisation of Physical Education in Primary and Secondary Schools.*—Since 1937, the entire outlook on Physical Education in schools has been revolutionised. Prior to this date, Physical Education was generally regarded as being equivalent to "School Drill" which was an extraneous activity, entirely optional in character and not infrequently looked down upon by the pupils. In fact, it was often considered a matter of pride for an intelligent child to be 'delicate' in health and to regard a strong body as inconsistent with a well-trained mind. This sorry state of affairs, however, exists no longer and Physical Education is now regarded as an integral part of education and its contribution to the development of the intellectual and moral faculties has been fully realised. Government, therefore, decided that Physical Education should be made compulsory for all school children (G.R., E.D., No. 5310 of 25-5-1938).

Several measures have been adopted to carry out this reform in all its aspects. It has been laid down that one period a day should be provided for Physical Education in the lower standards and that five and four periods a week should be provided in Standards VIII, and IX and X respectively. A special and detailed syllabus for Physical Education for each of the Standards I-XI has been drawn up and adopted in all schools. The first syllabus was introduced in 1938; and in the light of the experience gained the syllabus for Standards I-IV was first revised. Then the syllabus for Standards V-VII was also revised and the revision of the syllabus for Standards VIII-XI is now under consideration. Similarly, it has been laid down that secondary schools should try to provide one diploma-holder in Physical Education for every 250 pupils and that there should be an adequate number of teachers trained in the other courses of Physical Education. As stated already, the principle that every class-teacher in primary schools should be trained to impart instruction in Physical Education has been accepted by Government and steps are already being taken to work it out in actual practice. Efforts have also been made to provide adequate play-grounds to as many schools as possible. Grants are given for purchase or acquisition of play-grounds and when these are taken on a rental basis, the expenditure incurred by the schools for the purpose is also admitted for recurring grants. Claims made by educational institutions for the purpose of play-grounds are given preferential consideration in the disposal of Government lands and it has been laid down that, in all the town planning schemes to be drawn up in future, an adequate provision should be made for play-grounds for





Squad drill



Rhythmics

schools. Similarly, the expenditure incurred by the schools on the purchase of approved equipment for Physical Education is admitted for grant-in-aid. Physical Education has also been made an examination subject in secondary schools. For this purpose, a detailed scheme giving the prescribed tests in Physical Education, the method of marking, the standard for passing, etc. was drawn up in 1949-50. A special booklet on the scheme was prepared and circulated to all schools for guidance. It may be stated here that the scheme has now been adopted universally and is yielding good results. The schools were encouraged to organise tournaments, excursions, camps, picnics, hiking parties, etc. and it is now seen that these activities are being organised by the schools on an increasing scale and that the number of participants in them is increasing from year to year. School uniforms were not made compulsory because of the economic difficulties involved. But it was recommended to the schools that a school uniform consisting of a shirt and a half-pant should be encouraged and the practical experience of the last few years shows that the idea is gradually becoming popular. In short, it may be said that, during the last seventeen years, Physical Education has come to occupy an inseparable and important place in the life of our primary and secondary schools.

(H) *Physical Education in Colleges (1937-55).*—In 1938, the University of Bombay made Physical Education compulsory for the first year students. A little later, the scheme was extended to all students in the first two years of the arts, science and commerce colleges and the first year of the medical colleges. The important features of the University Ordinance of 1938 regarding the compulsory Physical Education in colleges are as follows:—

(1) Heads of institutions are required to submit a programme of Physical Education activities in the college together with a detailed time-table of the physical training classes;

(2) Members of the U.T.C. and those who are medically unfit or regularly take part in the college teams in the recognised fixtures of matches should be exempted from the compulsory physical training classes;

(3) Every college is required to appoint on its staff, at least one trained physical instructor charged with duties of implementing the scheme of compulsory Physical Education;

(4) The course of Physical Education should consist of one item selected preferably from each of the groups (A and B) given below, for a period of 30 minutes per day on not less than three days a week:—

Group A: Callisthenics, Gymnastics and Combative Sports;

Group B: Athletics (including Major and Minor games);

(5) Every student is required to attend the training class for $\frac{3}{4}$ of the possible number of periods in a year; and

(6) The college authorities are required to adopt an efficient method of recording attendance of physical education classes and to submit at the end of the year a detailed report of the working of the scheme in respect of the institutions under them.

The same scheme has also been adopted by the other universities in the State.

A scheme for the medical inspection of college students has also been drawn up and put into effect during this period.

The universities also organise inter-college and inter-university sports every year. These are becoming increasingly popular and a larger proportion of students has been participating in them.

(I) *Camping*.—In 1949-50, Government decided to encourage camping amongst school pupils because it is a very useful and valuable educational activity. A Special Officer for Holiday Camps was also appointed, although the post had to be retrenched a little later. A sum of Rs. 20,000 is annually ear-marked for this purpose. Twelve camps for teachers are to be organised every year—six for secondary teachers and six for primary teachers—and a contingent expenditure of Rs. 1,100 is sanctioned for each camp. Similarly, two camps (one for boys and one for girls) are also to be organised annually in each district and a contingent expenditure of Rs. 100 is sanctioned for each such camp.

The programmes of these camps include general P.T., games, sight-seeing, talks, entertainments, teaching of some useful crafts, etc. Emphasis is placed on community living, self-help, love for outdoor life and social service.

The Department has also developed three permanent camping sites—one at Mahabaleshwar, the second at Bhore, and the third at Karla. Attempts are also being made to develop at least one good camping site in each district.

(J) *Medical Inspection*.—Government have introduced medical inspection for school pupils, on a compulsory basis, and every student is required to undergo medical examination at least thrice during his school life—once in Standards I-IV and twice in Standards V-XI. A detailed form has been prescribed for the purpose and the expenditure incurred by schools on such examination is admitted for purposes of grant at prescribed rates.

(K) *Propaganda*.—Under the new scheme of Physical Education adopted by Government since 1937, it is regarded as a duty of the schools and the Department to organise propaganda for educating public opinion in matters relating to Physical Education. For this purpose, three days are annually observed as *Physical Education Days*. All schools as well as other institutions interested in Physical Education participate in the programmes for these days which include mass drills, sports-meets, tournaments, school cleanliness campaigns, village uplift work, etc. These celebrations have served a very useful purpose and have helped to popularise Physical Education not only among the youth, but among the adult population as well.

Government has also assisted in the organisation of the first Bombay State Physical Education Conference which was held in Bombay in 1949. It was attended by leading educationists and social workers interested in the problem and helped to educate public opinion on different aspects of Physical Education. This was followed by another conference at

Ahmedabad in 1950-51 and by a third conference at Dharwar in 1954-55. Government has given substantial financial assistance to all these conferences. Besides, regional conferences were also organised on several occasions during this period and they all received financial assistance from Government.

Government also gives grants-in-aid to private associations which conduct tournaments in accordance with the rules framed by the Department.

Government has also prepared a 16 mm. film on "Physical Education in the State of Bombay" and has also stocked a number of films and posters on Physical Education. These are lent to exhibitions whenever they are held.

(L) *The State Sports' Festival*.—Since 1954-55, Government have been organising a State Sports' Festival with the primary object of arousing enthusiasm and love for sports among the youth of the country. For this purpose a Special Committee has been set up under the Chairmanship of the Chief Minister and it has its agencies in each district and taluka of the State. The Sports' Festival itself is held in three stages. At the first stage, inter-village competitions are held in each taluka; at the second stage, the winners of the taluka sports compete at the district level; and at the third and the final stage, the winners of the district meets compete in the State meet.

The first State Sports' Festival was held in January, 1955 and more than 1,000 persons coming from all the districts of the State participated in it.

The Education Department renders all possible co-operation to State Sports' Festival Committee to work out the scheme and the officers of the Physical Education Inspectorate as well as the trained teachers of Physical Education in primary and secondary schools supply the personnel which is so very essential to organise the sports' meets.

(M) *Gymnasia*.—On a recommendation made by the Physical Education Committee, 1937, gymnasia were recognised as educational institutions for the first time in the history of education in this State. A set of rules for the recognition of and payment of grants-in-aid to gymnasia was sanctioned in 1939. These rules insisted upon the following conditions to be fulfilled by a gymnasium for recognition:—

- (i) Management by competent and reliable persons;
- (ii) Admission to be given on non-communal basis;
- (iii) Following the prescribed course of Physical Education;
- (iv) Maintaining adequate and well qualified instructors;
- (v) Maintaining buildings, premises etc., in good and healthy conditions;
- (vi) Providing adequate equipment;
- (vii) Providing for medical inspection for the members on the roll;
- (viii) Having a minimum average daily attendance of twenty members; and
- (ix) Maintaining systematic records and proper accounts.

Institutions fulfilling the above conditions have been sanctioned a grant both on recurring and non-recurring expenditure, to the extent of 25 per cent. of the expenditure incurred. This upper limit was increased to 33½ per cent. in 1946. In recent years, however, the actual grant given to the gymnasia falls much below the upper limits prescribed because it has not been possible to increase the budget allotment for the purpose in proportion to the increase in the number of recognised gymnasia.

The following table shows the number of gymnasia recognised and the amount of grant-in-aid paid to them:—

TABLE No. 10 (5)

Recognised Gymnasia (1938-55)

Year.	No. of recognised gymnasia.	Amount of grant-in-aid paid.
		Rs.
1938-39	124	9,534
1939-40	147	9,780
1940-41	138	9,905
1941-42	113	9,890
1942-43	102	9,990
1943-44	97	10,000
1944-45	89	9,790
1945-46	84	14,760
1946-47	92	14,957
1947-48	85	16,810
1948-49	89	37,095
1949-50	154	42,160
1950-51	145	47,864
1951-52	151	32,662
1952-53	155	38,516
1953-54	151	32,000
1954-55	154	32,000

(N) *Finance*.—Physical Education made a humble beginning in 1937 when the First Popular Ministry came to power. But as soon as the report of the first Physical Education Committee, 1937, was received and the broad lines of development were decided upon, Government provided

large grants for expenditure on Physical Education. The following table gives the total budget provision made for Physical Education annually from 1939-40:—

TABLE No. 10 (6)

Budget allotment for Physical Education (1939-55)

Year.	Total budget allotment for Physical Education.
	Rs.
1939-40	3,66,200
1940-41	3,15,600
1941-42	2,60,440
1942-43	2,91,370
1943-44	2,72,160
1944-45	2,52,150
1945-46	2,97,180
1946-47	3,13,600
1947-48	6,54,430
1948-49	8,88,900
1949-50	10,77,200
1950-51	10,97,900
1951-52	9,84,300
1952-53	10,08,300
1953-54	5,99,150
1954-55	6,01,500

N. B.—The fall in expenditure since 1953-54 is mainly due to the decision to abolish the *special* grants for Physical Education which used to be given to secondary schools in the past and to merge them in the *ordinary* grants for Secondary Education.

10 (5). *Conclusion*.—The foregoing review of the growth of Physical Education during the last one hundred years will show that a properly organised movement for the development of Physical Education in the State was initiated only under the Popular Ministry which came into office in 1937. The achievement of Government in this field has been not only of a pioneering character, but really outstanding. And yet a number of measures still need to be taken in order to make the Physical Education programme a mass movement. The position as regards convenient play-grounds for school children is still far from satisfactory, especially in cities, and the provision of equipment also leaves much to be desired, particularly in the rural areas. Although a good deal has been done to provide teachers of Physical Education for secondary schools, the training of primary teachers in this activity needs to be further accelerated. Similarly, Physical Education in the universities cannot be said to have

been organised on very effective lines though much is being done in that direction already. Moreover, the larger problem of adult recreation has only recently been taken up by organising Sports Festivals throughout the State and has to be pursued vigorously if it is to yield satisfactory results, especially as regards women's Physical Education. The same could be said about the compulsory medical examination of students and the tremendous problem of malnutrition. In fact, the latter has hardly been touched so far. It is obvious that problems of such magnitude cannot be tackled successfully only with the available resources of the State. But now that the Government has taken a splendid lead and shown the way, it is for non-official enterprise to step forth and complete the pioneering work of the State Government.

CHAPTER XI

EDUCATION OF GIRLS

11 (1). *Social Position and Education of Women at the beginning of the Nineteenth Century.*—The education of women is intimately related to their position in Society. A change in the social status of women immediately affects both the extent and the character of their education; and conversely, an improvement in the educational provision for women necessarily raises their status in Society. These two aspects of women's life have, therefore, to be studied together.

At the beginning of the nineteenth century, the social status of women in this State was far from satisfactory. Among the Hindus, women had hardly any property rights; child marriages were extremely common or rather the order of the day; polygamy was allowed and was fairly common among the higher or well-to-do classes; hardly any vocation (except as a domestic servant or a wage-earner in agriculture or industry) was open to women and the social and moral code was highly discriminatory against them; among the higher castes or high class families, widow re-marriage and divorce were forbidden or looked down upon and the treatment meted out to widows in some communities was inhuman; the evil of *purdah* had spread and its observance had almost become a distinction of higher feudal status; and the custom of *sati* was not only practised but was highly venerated as well. Among the Muslims, child-marriages were rare; the Muslim women also had better property rights; but the evil of *purdah* prevailed to such an extent that, in the ultimate analysis, the social status of Muslim women was not much better than that among the Hindus. The population of the other religious communities was not large and although amongst some small communities like the Parsis the social status of women was much better, it does not affect the general conclusion that, in this State, the status of women was very low at the beginning of the last century.

It follows, therefore, that the educational facilities provided for women at this time were almost non-existent. The home was regarded as the sole sphere of a woman's life; and hence the only education considered worthwhile for her included cooking, home management, and participation in those vocations or arts in which she would be required to help her husband. This practical instruction was given to her when she worked as an assistant to her mother or some other older woman in the family. But formal education of any type was a taboo and girls were never sent to the indigenous schools.* References are available to show that the high class Muslim families taught their daughters at home; and a similar custom undoubtedly prevailed among the Hindus also. But the total number of girls thus instructed must have been a microscopic minority and it would not be wrong to say that the formal education of women was practically non-existent at this time.

11 (2). *The First Attempts (1824-54).*—The lead in the modern education of women was taken by the missionaries and the credit of having opened the first school for Indian girls belongs to the American Missionary Society. It started a school in Bombay City in 1824 and the work was so popular that it had nine schools with 400 pupils in 1829. The same Mission opened two schools for Indian Women at Ahmednagar in 1831 and also established a boarding school for girls soon afterwards. The Church Missionary Society opened its first school for Indian women in 1826 and, in the following ten years, established several girls' schools in the Thana and Nasik Districts. Under the guidance of Dr. Wilson, the Scottish Missionary Society made considerable progress in this field in the City of Bombay as well as in the districts. Further illustrations are unnecessary; and it would be sufficient to state that the pioneer work in the education of women in this State, as in the rest of India, was done by the missionaries and that the mission schools for girls formed the bulk of the total number of girls' schools existing in the State when the Despatch of 1854 was received.

Indian private enterprise soon followed in the foot-steps of the missionaries. Among the pioneer efforts made in this field by enlightened Indians, three deserve special mention. The first was that of the girls' schools started by the "Students' Literary and Scientific Society" which owed its existence to the efforts of Prof. Patton of the Elphinstone Institute and with which Shri Dadabhai Naoroji, Dr. Bhau Daji, Rao Saheb V. N. Mandlik and others (who were then students of the Institute) were connected. This Society was formed in 1847 and two years later it established girls' schools in which its members imparted instruction, without remuneration, for two hours every day. Later on, popular contributions became available and full-time paid teachers were appointed for these schools. The second is the great work of Mahatma Phule in Poona. This far-sighted social reformer realised the importance of educating women and, in spite of a stiff and violent opposition from orthodox quarters, conducted a school for girls in which he and his wife taught together. The local hostility to this experiment may be imagined from the statement of

* For details, see R. V. Parulekar: Survey of Indigenous Education in the Province of Bombay (1820-30).

Mr. Warden, the Judicial Commissioner, who visited the school and observed that it reminded him of the "assembly of the early Christians, in an upper room with doors shut for fear of the Jews."* But in spite of all such persecution, Mahatma Phule laid the foundations of the modern education of women in Maharashtra. Finally, the third pioneer effort was that of Shri Maganbhai Karamchand of Ahmedabad who gave a donation of Rs. 20,000 for the establishment of two girls' schools in that city. Even before 1854, therefore, we see the small beginnings of the forces which have built up the education of women during the last hundred years—private enterprise (especially Indian), donations and contributions from the public, the vision and sacrifice of far-sighted social reformers, and a new leadership of the women themselves.

While private enterprise was thus forging ahead, the East India Company refused to undertake any responsibility for the education of women on the ground of religious neutrality. The average cautious official of this period was of the opinion that "the scheme of Female Education is doubtless unpopular, and looked upon by the masses with fear and dread, whether Hindus or Mohommadans, and that suspicious, ill-disposed natives may consider it subservient in some degree to the views of proselytism."† He, therefore, refused to lend his support, direct or indirect, to the movement of establishing girls' schools. Even Mountstuart Elphinstone, who did so much for the education of men, was absolutely silent on the issue of the education of women and his long Minute of over 80 paragraphs does not even contain a reference to it. The official neglect of the education of women, therefore, continued throughout this period; and in 1853, Lt. Col. William Jacob stated in his evidence before the Select Committee of Parliament that "not a single female has come as yet under the Government system of education in Western India."‡

The credit of changing this attitude goes to Lord Dalhousie, the Governor-General of India, who directed the Council of Education "to consider its functions as comprising the superintendence of native female education"§ and declared that it ought to be given the frank and cordial support of Government. The Despatch of 1854 approved of these orders|| and thus the responsibility for the education of women was formally accepted by Government in 1854.

It is a lesson of the history of education in India that the education of women has followed that of men at a respectable distance. Government accepted responsibility for the education of men in 1813; but it did so for women as late as in 1854. In that year, there were, as already stated, 2,875 schools for the education of men with 1,06,040 pupils; but at the same time, the girls' schools numbered only 65 with an enrolment of about 3,500 pupils. This was a modest beginning no doubt; but its promise was very great and it ultimately exercised a very salutary influence on the creation of a new social order in the country.

* Selections from Educational Records, Volume II, p. 51.

† Selections from Educational Records, Vol. II, p. 57.

‡ Ibid, p. 34.

§ Selections from Educational Records, Vol. II, p. 60.

|| Para. 83.

11 (3). *Development of the Education of Women (1854-1902).*—Following the orders of the Despatch of 1854, Government offered, in 1857, small annual rewards to those primary teachers who would form girls' classes in their schools. But the progress of this scheme was slow and even in 1864-65, the Government schools contained only 639 girls. In that year, however, the proceeds of the local fund cess became available and it was possible for the Department to start more girls' schools. In 1870-71, therefore, there were as many as 218 girls' schools (against 23 in 1864-65) with 9,190 pupils; and the Government expenditure on the education of women which was Rs. 341 only in 1864-65 increased to Rs. 39,337 in 1870-71.

At this juncture, Miss Mary Carpenter, the well-known English social worker in the field of juvenile delinquency and prison reforms, paid a visit to India because her interest in the country had been kindled when she met Raja Ram Mohan Roy in England. She was received in India as a State guest by Governors and the Governor-General. She could, therefore, plead the cause of the education of women direct with the highest authorities and it was mainly owing to her suggestion that the Government of Bombay decided to establish two training colleges for women, in Poona (1870) and Ahmedabad (1871). The difficulties of these early institutions may easily be imagined because, of the 8 women who first entered the Poona College, some did not know even the alphabet. A training college for teachers can function properly only if there are an adequate number of feeder schools which train the would-be teachers to a prescribed minimum standard. But such institutions did not then exist in sufficient numbers and the training colleges of this period had to admit such women as were willing to enter it without paying any attention to their educational attainments. The cart had to be put before the horse and a training college had to do the work of a school in the first instance, in order that primary schools for girls could be placed under competent teachers a little later. No entrance standard was, therefore, prescribed till 1878 and even then, the passing of the third primary standard was declared to be enough to qualify a student for admission to the College. Up to 1882, this college sent out 34 women teachers which works out at an average of about 3 per year, the largest number sent out in any year being 6 in 1882. The story of the Ahmedabad College is almost similar and till 1882, it sent out 38 women teachers.

Between 1882 and 1902, both these training institutions made considerable progress. Besides, eight additional training institutions* for women were also established so that the total number of women under training increased to 234 in 1901-02. When the primary education of girls began to spread and better educated girls began to seek admission, the entrance standard was raised to Standard V by 1901-02. However, as there was no common examination (like the Primary School Certificate) on the basis of which girls could be admitted to the college, each training college for women had its own code, held its own entrance examination and even had its own curriculum which, however, had to be approved by the Department. It may, therefore, be said that, by 1901-02, the training of women

* Of these, 3 institutions with an enrolment of 30 women were meant for European and Anglo-Indian schools.

teachers had already been placed on a permanent basis although the progress was not very satisfactory.

This period also witnessed the introduction of special courses in primary schools for girls. The prevailing opinion in the nineteenth century was to have an absolutely separate system of education for girls with separate schools, separate syllabuses, and even separate text-books, not to speak of women teachers and women inspectors. As soon as conditions became favourable, each one of these measures was being brought into practice. Separate schools and women-teachers had already become a reality by 1875. The principle of appointing women inspecting officers was also recognised because the Lady Superintendents of the training colleges at Poona and Ahmedabad were required to supervise the working of the girls' schools in the neighbourhood. In 1877-78, therefore, it was felt that the time was ripe for the introduction of separate courses for girls' schools. Two main grounds were put forward in support of this change. Firstly, it was argued that a different syllabus was necessary for girls' schools because the average school-life of a girl was very much shorter than that of a boy; and secondly, it was pointed out that subjects like needle-work which had a special utility for women ought to be included in the syllabus for girls' schools in preference to other subjects. These were strong arguments and accordingly a separate four-year course was instituted as against a six years' course which the boys had to study.* The separate text-books for girls were long felt to be necessary; but they were introduced only as late as in 1906.

Another development of this period, which was even more significant in the long run than the establishment of training colleges for women primary teachers was the entry of women in secondary schools and colleges. A lead in the matter was taken by advanced communities like Europeans, Anglo-Indians, Indian Christians, and Parsees. But a typical event was the establishment of the High School for Indian girls in Poona in 1884. The orthodox opinion opposed the establishment of this institution very vehemently. But the support given to the cause by social workers put the institution on a solid foundation. Thus started a movement which spread rapidly in the years to follow. Similar battles were waged in other centres, but the progressivists won all along. Not only were more secondary schools established for girls in different centres, but girls began to attend boys' secondary schools in fairly large numbers.

This expansion of the Secondary Education of girls was naturally followed by their entry into colleges. In Western countries, and particularly in such older Universities as Oxford and Cambridge, women were not admitted to university degrees for a long time and they had to wage a bitter fight to secure this right. In the University of Bombay, however, there was hardly any conflict over the issue. When the question of admitting women to the University arose, the authorities merely passed a general resolution to the effect "that words in the masculine in the rules of the University shall for the future include also the feminine"† and

* Report of the Bombay Provincial Committee of the Indian Education Commission pp. 154-55.

† Bombay University Calendar (1888) p. 410.

thereby recognised the equal right of either sex to receive the honours and distinctions which it conferred. In 1888, Miss Cornelia Sorabji graduated with first class honours in Latin, being the first woman from the State to receive a university degree. The event was considered to be so important that the Vice-Chancellor dwelt upon it in his convocation address and after congratulating the lady on her success, wished that she would "have many followers equally successful."* Gradually the number of girls attending colleges began to increase and in 1901-02 as many as 75 girls were reading in collegiate institutions.

Similarly, the Professional Education of women also made a beginning during this period. As stated already, the profession of teachers was thrown open to them by the establishment of training colleges in 1870-71. Midwifery classes were started in the Grant Medical College (1875-76) and women students also began to be admitted to the degree course in medicine. In short, women now began to be trained as doctors, nurses and midwives and the profession of medicine was also thrown open to them. Similarly, the art courses in the J. J. School of Art, Bombay attracted several women students and the missionaries started the industrial training of girls in some of their institutions. It is true that the number of girls attending institutions of Professional Education was small even in 1901-02 and that a very large percentage of them belonged to the four advanced communities mentioned above. But the significant achievement of the period was that the Professional Education of women did make a beginning, however humble, and that some careers outside the home were thrown open to women for the first time.

The following table shows the progress of the education of women in the State between 1881-82 and 1901-02:—

TABLE NO. 11 (1)
Education of Girls (1882-1902)

	No. of Special Institutions for Girls.	No. of Girls in all Institutions.
<i>Secondary Schools</i>		
1881-82	28	1,581
1886-87	51	2,921
1891-92	58	4,070
1896-97	63	3,388
1901-02	67	4,984
<i>Primary Schools</i>		
1881-82	326	19,917
1886-87	478	44,253
1891-92	677	63,155
1896-97	744	67,440
1901-02	768	76,068

* Bombay University Calendar (1888) p. 411.

The number of girls reading in colleges increased from nil in 1881-82 to 75 in 1901-02 and the total number of girls reading in institutions of Professional Education was 345 in 1901-02 (5 in medical schools; 20 in arts schools; 76 in industrial schools; 10 in drawing classes; and 234 in teachers training institutions).

The distribution of girls reading at the different stages of education in 1901-02 according to communities is given in the following table:—

TABLE No. 11 (2)

Girls under Instruction according to Communities (1901-02)

Community.		Colleges.	Secondary Schools.	Primary Schools.
Europeans and Anglo-Indians	...	24	2,046	*48
Parsis	...	37	958	4,536
Indian Christians	...	8	1,561	3,795
Hindus	...	5	255	54,263
Muslims	46	12,966
Others	...	1	118	460
Total	...	75	4,984	76,068

* At this period the primary department of the English teaching schools were classified as secondary. Hence this low figure.

Taken all in all, therefore, the education of women had made but little progress by 1901-02. The total female population of the State, according to the Census of 1901, was 89,62,708 (British districts only); but the total number of girls at schools was only 93,063 (including 11,586 girls reading in unrecognised institutions) and the percentage of literacy among women was just about 1.00. Most of the girls under instruction were reading in primary schools and the higher education of women had just begun and was still mostly confined to the four minor but progressive communities of Europeans, Anglo-Indians, Parsis, and Indian Christians. Quantitatively, this is a very disappointing picture. But it would be hardly fair to the administrators and social workers of this period to judge their achievement from modern standards. A better and a more equitable method is to compare the conditions in 1901-02 with those which existed at the advent of the British rule. At the beginning of the nineteenth century no girls attended public schools and an extremely small number was educated at home. There was also a strong prejudice against the education of women and their social status was far from satisfactory. As against this dark picture, there were over 93,000 girls under instruction in 1901-02 and the prejudice against the education of girls in primary schools had materially disappeared. What is even more important, public conscience had been awakened to the social injustice done to women and attempts had begun to be made for ameliorating their condition and raising their social status. Bentinck had abolished the custom of *sati* with a firm hand. The re-marriage of Hindu widows had been legalised by the Act of 1856, the treatment meted out to them had improved, and

several of them were now earning a livelihood as teachers or nurses. The very idea of the age of consent was unknown prior to 1854; but the Indian Penal Code of 1860 introduced the concept and fixed it at ten years; and the Act of 1891 raised it to twelve. Several attempts were made by social workers like Shri Malbari to raise the age of marriage by a legal enactment; but they did not succeed. However, the age of marriage for girls had actually been raised by a few years during the nineteenth century and by 1901 child marriages had become less frequent, especially in the urban areas and among the middle and higher classes. This was due to several causes such as (1) the indirect effect of the attempts to raise the age of marriage; (2) the public realisation of the evils of child marriages; (3) the rise in the age of marriage for boys as a result of economic factors; and (4) the genuine desire of some parents to educate their daughters before they were married. In other words, the initial inertia in the education of women had been largely overcome by the end of the nineteenth century, its foundations had been firmly laid, and the stage had been set for a rapid expansion in all directions. For this valuable spade-work in the cause of the education of women, the social workers and administrators of the period deserve a great tribute.

11 (4). *Development of the Education of Women (1902-37).*—The education of women developed at a far greater speed during the first four decades of the present century. This was due to a number of factors—political, administrative, and social. The great awakening created among the people by the struggle for freedom organised under the Indian National Congress, and especially the participation therein by large numbers of women under the lead of Mahatma Gandhi, created an atmosphere which was extremely favourable, not only to educational progress, but for social reconstruction as well. The reconstitution of Indian Legislatures under the Government of India Act, 1919, with large elected majorities made it possible to undertake legislation for social reforms—a responsibility which the British administrators of the earlier period had generally avoided on grounds of social and religious neutrality. The age of consent was raised to fourteen in 1925; and in 1929, the Sarda Act which raised the minimum age for the marriage of girls to 14 years was placed on the statute book by the Central Legislature. It is true that this Act was a rather half-hearted measure and that it was never fully effective. But it had a great educative influence and the percentage of child marriages was greatly reduced by 1937. Other social and economic factors such as urbanisation, the break-up of the joint family, the increasing desire of boys to postpone marriage till after their education was completed and they were able to secure a job (which led to an increase in their own age of marriage), also contributed to the same result. This rise in the age of marriage increased the duration of school-life for girls and also enabled them to receive higher education to a much larger extent than in the past. For the first time in the history of this State, women were now given political rights. They were able to vote in the elections to local bodies and the Legislatures; and not only could they contest elections to these bodies, but on most of them seats were even reserved for them. Besides, a new leadership of social workers had now been built up among women themselves. Organisations like the All India

Women's Conference had been established and were actively striving to improve the general lot of women. As may be easily anticipated, these tremendous social changes created a very favourable background for the rapid expansion of the education of women.

The following table shows the advance of the education of women between 1901-02 and 1936-37:—

TABLE NO. 11 (3)

Education of Girls (1902-1937)

			No. of Special Institutions for Girls.	No. of Girls in all Institutions.
1. Colleges	...	1901-02	...	75
		1906-07	...	96
		1911-12	...	105
		1916-17	...	177
		1921-22	...	258
		1926-27	...	449
		1931-32	...	815
		1936-37	...	1,245
2. Secondary Schools	...	1901-02	67	4,934
		1906-07	72	5,932
		1911-12	79	7,534
		1916-17	77	9,037
		1921-22	87	11,393
		1926-27	87	13,531
		1931-32	100	19,637
		1936-37	104	25,820
3. Primary Schools	...	1901-02	768	76,068
		1906-07	979	89,044
		1911-12	1,154	1,26,703
		1916-17	1,110	1,24,324
		1921-22	1,452	1,61,085
		1926-27	1,535	1,98,604
		1931-32	1,732	2,62,325
		1936-37	1,478	2,87,061
4. Special Schools (in- cluding Training Institutions).	...	1901-02	11	345
		1906-07	15	360
		1911-12	21	639
		1916-17	29	1,146
		1921-22	42	2,343
		1926-27	44	2,817
		1931-32	57	2,814
		1936-37	51	3,291

It will be seen that the number of women studying at the *collegiate stage* has increased from 75 to 1,245. Creditable as this progress is, there were several other important achievements of women in this field which are not shown by the bald statistics given above. For example, the old prejudice about the intellectual inferiority of women was given a rude shock during this period. When girls began to attend secondary schools and colleges and took up the study of courses originally designed for boys (for the simple reason that special courses did not exist), the educators were apprehensive that the curricula might be too heavy for the capacities of women and that their health might be adversely affected by the strain of school studies. But contrary to all such fears, several brilliant women won honours and prizes in open competition with men. For example, Kumari Reuben stood first in the Matriculation Examination in 1905; Kumari Sita Ajagaonkar won the much coveted Jagannath Shankarshet Scholarship at the Matriculation in 1919 and was the first woman to secure this honour; in 1921, Kumari Sulabha Panandikar was the first woman to win the Ellis prize at the Matriculation in addition to the Jagannath Shankarshet Scholarship; in 1926, Kumari Venu Abhyankar topped the list of the students at the School Leaving Examination; and so on. Successes of this type naturally increased the self-confidence of women and gave a great impetus to the development of their higher education. Similarly, the number of women appearing at the different examinations of the Bombay University was increasing very rapidly every year.* The Professional Education of women had also expanded during this period and women were now entering careers which had been formerly closed to them. In 1936-37, 186 women were studying in professional colleges as against 45 in 1901-02. Of these, 18 were reading in law colleges, 140 in colleges of medicine, 21 in the Secondary Training College at Bombay, 2 in the College of Agriculture, Poona, and 5 in colleges of commerce. In short, it may be said that the collegiate education of women was now increasing in variety as well as gaining in depth and extent. It was also during this period that the S. N. D. T. Indian Women's University was established in 1916. Its history has already been narrated in Chapter VI.

In the field of *Secondary Education*, it will be seen from the above table that there has been a great increase in the number of secondary schools for girls during this period—they stood at 104 in 1936-37 against 67 in 1901-02. It must be remembered that most of these schools were conducted by private enterprise because, even in 1936-37, Government maintained only one High School for Girls at Ahmedabad and 6 Middle Schools at Thana, Nasik, Ahmednagar, Dharwar, Bijapur and Poona (this

* For instance, in 1935-36, the number of women who passed the University Examinations included the following:—

Examination.	No. passed.	Examination.	No. passed.
M. A.	10	LL. B.	3
M. Sc.	3	Intermediate in Arts	158
B. A. (Honours)	66	Intermediate in Science.	52
B. A. (Pass)	51	M. B. B. S.	16
B. Sc.	14	Matriculation	544
M. D.	1		
B. T.	24		

was the Anglo-Urdu school for Muslim girls). From the financial point of view, secondary schools for girls were not as successful as the high schools for boys. The average strength of a secondary school for girls was generally smaller; it was compelled to charge lower rates of fees and to allow larger number of free places than in boys' schools because parents were not as willing to spend on the education of daughters as on that of their sons; and, as women teachers were more difficult to be obtained, they had to be paid at a higher rate than men, thus adding materially to the expenditure on establishment. In spite of all these handicaps, the public was conducting a very large number of special secondary schools for girls for the reason that the Government enterprise in the field was limited and entirely out of proportion to the demand.

Another important development of this period was the large increase in the number of women teachers employed in secondary schools. In 1936-37, there were as many as 1,414 women teachers working in secondary schools (261 in middle schools and 1,153 in high schools) as against 1,087 men teachers in middle schools and 4,575 men teachers in high schools. In other words, one teacher out of every five in a secondary school was a woman. This large number was due to three causes. In the first place, the increasing desire of educated women to have an independent career for themselves, combined with the increasing economic pressure that was being exerted on the educated classes, led to much larger employment of women in this field which was respectable as well as fairly well-paid. Secondly, the increase in the number of special secondary schools for girls also helped the trend because, during this period, the staff of such schools consisted mostly, if not exclusively, of women; and thirdly, the Department insisted that in all boys' schools to which girls were admitted, a number of women teachers (in proportion to the number of girls enrolled) must be appointed.

Still another notable development of this period was the attempt to introduce a specialised curriculum for girls in secondary schools. At the beginning of this period, the number of secondary schools for girls was small and hence it had not been possible to differentiate between the curricula of high schools for boys and for girls. The problem was soon taken up during this period. Drawing and music were generally introduced as regular subjects in girls' schools while domestic science was introduced as an optional subject and girls were permitted to take it in lieu of science at the Matriculation Examination. But for several reasons, very few girls availed themselves of this option and the alternative course did not become popular. Even the special schools for girls did not generally have the necessary equipment for teaching domestic science and the boys' schools to which a large number of girls were admitted did not have it at all. Besides, domestic science was not a subject permitted in the first year class in the arts and science colleges and consequently, the girls did not find it advantageous to take up this subject at the secondary stage. Moreover, the failure of the universities to provide for the teaching of this subject at the collegiate stage made it impossible for the schools to have properly qualified and competent teachers to teach it at the secondary level. The experiment cannot, therefore, be said to

have been successful although the need of improving the situation was being keenly realised by 1937.

The following distribution of the girls in secondary schools in 1936-37, may be compared with that given earlier for 1901-02:—

TABLE No. 11 (4)
Girls in Secondary Schools according to Communities (1936-37)

Community.				No. of Girls in Secondary Schools.
Europeans and Anglo-Indians	2,712
Indian Christians	4,709
Hindus	13,076
Muslims	711
Parsis	3,533
Others	1,079
Total	25,820

It shows that the Hindus and the Muslims had now taken to the *Secondary Education* of girls and that the prejudice in this respect had disappeared by 1936-37 just as that against Primary Education had disappeared by 1901-02.

In the primary stage, the figures given in the preceding table will show the large expansion that had taken place during this period. The number of special primary schools for girls had increased from 768 in 1901-02 to 1,478 in 1936-37; and the total enrolment of girls in primary schools had increased from 76,068 in 1901-02 to 2,87,061 in 1936-37. In the latter year, there were as many as 5,416 women teachers in primary schools of whom 2,816 or 52 per cent. were trained. The number of training institutions for women had increased to 17 of which 4 were conducted by Government, 1 by the Bombay Municipality, and 12 by private enterprise; and the total number of women under training had increased to 946 as against 234 in 1901-02. The special primary course for girls which consisted of four standards only in 1901-02 was now extended to six standards.* A special school leaving examination at the end of the primary course was organised for girls in 1924, on the analogy of a similar examination which was being conducted for boys for several years in the past. In the first year of the examination, only 915 girls appeared for it in the State as a whole and 476 passed. But it made rapid progress and in 1936-37, as many as 5,347 girls appeared for it and 2,013 passed. With the introduction of this examination, it became possible to adopt it as the uniform standard for admission to training institutions, and to reorganise the training course for women. It was now decided that the total training

* This was still lower than the primary course for boys the duration of which had been raised to Std. VII in 1901-02.

period for a woman teacher should be three years. The first year was almost equivalent to Standard VII of the boys' schools, because the girls admitted to this year had only passed an examination equivalent to Standard VI of boys' schools. The second and third years of the course for women, therefore, were equivalent to the first and second years of the course for men (who had a still further course of the third year again open to them). As in the secondary stage, an attempt was also made at this stage to introduce a different curriculum for girls' schools and was more successful. In the beginning, domestic economy, needle-work nature study, school-gardening, drawing and hand-work were introduced as optional subjects for girls and later on, all of them except nature study and school-gardening were made compulsory. Greater attention also began to be paid to Physical Education in girls' schools. On the whole, therefore, the Primary Education of girls may be said to have made very considerable progress during this period. The only disquieting features were two. Firstly, the wastage in the Primary Education of girls was somewhat larger than that in the boys' schools partly because a girl was more useful at home and was consequently withdrawn from the school at a much earlier age than the boy, and partly because the age of marriage had not risen sufficiently in rural areas so that parents withdrew their girls from schools as soon as they were married or even betrothed. Secondly, a very small number of girls proceeded to the higher primary standards. In 1936-37, for example, the girls in primary schools were distributed as follows:—

TABLE NO. 11 (5)

Girls in Primary Schools according to Standards (1936-37)

Standard.		Number of Girls.	Percentage.
Infants	...	1,17,472	40.9
Standard I	...	53,912	18.8
Standard II	...	44,318	15.5
Standard III	...	31,666	11.0
Standard IV	...	22,991	8.0
Total, Lower Primary Stage:		2,70,359	94.2
Standard V	...	9,084	3.2
Standards VI and VII	...	7,618	2.6
Total, Upper Primary Stage:		16,702	5.8
Grand Total	...	2,87,061	100.0
(Lower and Upper Primary Stages).			

N.B.—The girls in Standard VII were those who attended it in boys' schools.

The above table shows that as many as 41 per cent. of the total number of girls enrolled in primary schools were in the Infants Class only and that only 5.8 per cent. of them proceeded to the upper primary standards. This cannot be called satisfactory; but the situation in the boys' schools also was similar and only slightly better—the enrolment in the Infants Class being 39.3 per cent. and that in the upper primary standards 6.2 per cent.

In so far as special schools are concerned, the number of these institutions had increased to 51 in 1936-37 against 11 in 1901-02 and their enrolment had increased to 3,291 in 1936-37 against 345 in 1901-02. Of these, 1,219 were in technical and industrial schools; 89 in commercial schools; and 115 in miscellaneous special schools. The movement of Adult Education, which had been restricted to men in the earlier period, was now extended to women, especially after the transfer of control in 1921. In 1936-37, there were 9 classes for adult women with an enrolment of 643.

An important development of this period, in so far as the organisation of the Department is concerned, was the creation of two posts of the Inspectresses of Girls' Schools in the Indian Educational Service in 1902. Two European ladies were recruited in England for these posts and one of them was posted in Sind and other in Bombay with jurisdiction over Bombay and Northern Division. In 1917-18, a third post of Inspectress of Girls' Schools was created for Kannada schools with headquarters at Dharwar; but in 1923, this officer was given jurisdiction over the Central and Bombay Divisions and her headquarters was shifted to Poona. On the decision to discontinue further recruitment to the I.E.S. these posts were transferred to the Women's Branch of the Bombay Educational Service Class I in 1930. A functional Inspectorate for the Girls' Schools which had been demanded since 1870 was thus created during this period for the first time.

11 (5). *Development of the Education of Women (1937-55).*—In the following period of about two decades, the education of women made an even more rapid progress than between 1901 and 1937. The combined effect of the introduction of Provincial Autonomy in 1937, the attainment of Independence in 1947, and the assumption of office by a Popular Ministry which was committed to remove all inequalities based on sex, and the general awakening of the public conscience to the urgency of removing the past injustice done to women, was to create a more favourable background for the general progress of women than that during any earlier period of history. Consequently, a number of social and political reforms were immediately carried out and the extent of discrimination against women was substantially reduced. The Constitution of India guaranteed an equality of status to women. Although women had been enfranchised in the past, the adoption of property as the main basis for franchise put the women at a disadvantage and the number of women voters was proportionally very small. The adoption of the adult franchise under the Constitution, therefore, removed the political inequalities of the past and granted equal political rights to women. The highest offices under the State were also thrown open to women and they were appointed as Governors, Ministers, Deputy Ministers, Ambassadors, etc. The

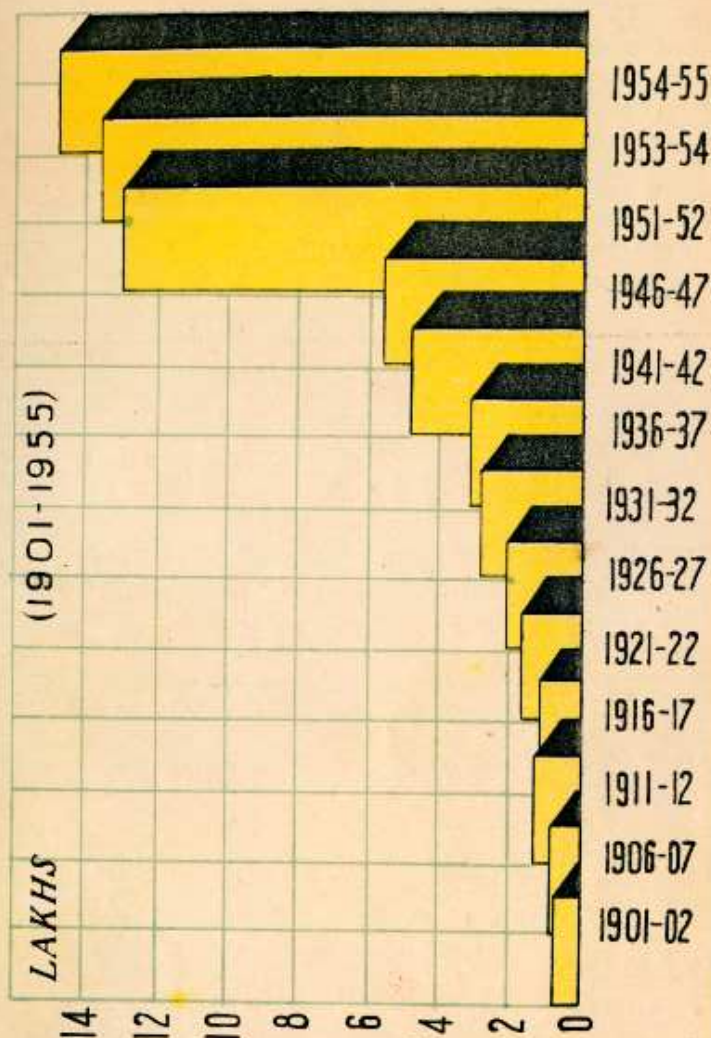
The following table shows the advance of the education of women between 1937 and 1955:—

TABLE No. 11 (6)

			Number of Special Institutions for Girls.	Number of Girls in all Institutions.
1. Colleges	...	1936-37	...	1,245
		1941-42	1	2,996
		1946-47	1	5,177
		1951-52	7	9,167
		1953-54	8	11,396
		1954-55	8	12,871
2. Secondary Schools	...	1936-37	104	25,820
		1941-42	148	43,299
		1946-47	184	62,629
		1951-52	170	96,134
		1953-54	180	1,02,553
		1954-55	184	1,14,124
3. Primary Schools	...	1936-37	1,478	2,87,061
		1941-42	1,691	4,26,744
		1946-47	1,804	4,39,789
		1951-52	2,069	11,96,635
		1953-54	2,056	11,70,364
		1954-55	2,049	12,79,175
4. Special Schools	...	1936-37	51	3,291
		1941-42	200	9,282
		1946-47	404	15,498
		1951-52	2,063	56,591
		1953-54	2,354	80,151
		1954-55	2,641	86,853
5. Total enrolment of girls (including that in un- recognised schools).		1936-37	1,681	3,26,571
		1941-42	2,083	4,90,337
		1946-47	2,414	5,81,333
		1951-52	3,316	13,63,171
		1953-54	4,609	13,68,752
		1954-55	4,914	14,98,276

*The Bombay Prevention of Hindu Bigamous Marriages Act 1946, and the Bombay Hindu Divorce Act, 1947.

ENROLMENT OF GIRLS IN RECOGNISED EDUCATIONAL INSTITUTIONS



It will be seen from the above table that there has been a great expansion in every field of education. At the *collegiate* stage, there were eight special institutions for women and all of them had been started or recognised during the period under review. They included (1) the S.N.D.T. Women's University, (2) five colleges* affiliated to it and located at Bombay, Poona, Baroda, Surat, and Ahmedabad, (3) the Sophia College, Bombay, conducted by the Convent of the Sacred Heart, and (4) the Faculty of Home Science started by the M. S. University of Baroda (this is the first and as yet the only institution of its type in the State).

It is also interesting to note that the public opinion in Bombay has never been hostile to co-education at the collegiate stage. In most other parts of India, the people were strongly opposed to sending their grown-up daughters to men's colleges; and consequently, separate colleges for women were started there at an early date. Even in 1901-02, there were as many as 12 colleges for women in the whole of India—3 in Madras, 3 in Bengal, and 6 in Uttar Pradesh. But no separate colleges for women were started in Bombay until 1916 when the S.N.D.T. Indian Women's University was established. The colleges started by this institution were naturally attended by girls only; but they have not been very largely attended, even after the University has been placed on a statutory basis. A college for girls was started at Poona by the Maharashtra Girls' Education Society but it had to be closed down for a lack of support, although hundreds of girls were attending the Poona Colleges for Men at the same time. The Sophia College in Bombay was started in 1941; but in spite of it and the Women's University and its college, the number of girls attending colleges for men is far larger than that enrolled in separate colleges for women. This is also true of every other centre where a separate college for girls has been started. It may, therefore, be stated that the general public opinion in the State is in favour of co-education at the collegiate stage, although the separate colleges are rendering a useful service to the education of women.

The increase in the number of girls attending colleges is very large and deserves special notice. In 1936-37, the total number of girls enrolled in colleges was 1,245 only; but in 1954-55, it rose to 12,871, of whom 10,819 were reading in colleges of arts and science and 2,047 in professional colleges.

In the field of *Secondary Education*, it is seen that the total number of secondary schools for girls has increased from 104 in 1936-37 to 184 in 1954-55; and that the total number of girls reading at the secondary stage has increased from 25,820 in 1936-37 to 1,14,124 in 1954-55. As in the earlier period, the number of women teachers showed a great increase during this period as well, the most prominent reason of the increase being the economic pressure that was exerted upon the educated middle classes due to the steep rise in the cost of living during the Second World War. The attempts to develop a separate curriculum for girls were continued during this period also. The study of Home Science now became more popular, especially as the subject was introduced in the

* These were classified as unrecognised institutions till 1951 when the University was put on a statutory basis.

Secondary School Certificate Examination Syllabus. The possibility of having competent teachers to teach it in secondary schools now increased considerably because of the organisation of the Faculty of Home Science by the M.S. University of Baroda. Besides, the adoption of the scheme of multipurpose high schools towards the end of the period under review made it possible to give financial assistance to girls' high schools for organising the teaching of the subject on proper lines. On the whole, therefore, it may be said that the Secondary Education of girls increased both in quantity and in quality during this period and that the stage was now set for the adoption of a fairly large scale programme for introducing diversified courses specially suited to the requirements of girls.

In recent years the tendency of the public seems to be growing in favour of co-education at the secondary stage. The policy of the Department has been to encourage co-education at the primary stage, especially at the lower primary, and to discourage co-education or mixed schools at the secondary stage. But the tendency of the parents to send their daughters to secondary schools for boys is continually on the increase as the following statistics will show:—

TABLE No. 11 (7)
Co-education in Secondary Schools (1901-55)

Year.	No. of Girls in Boys' Schools.	No. of Girls in Girls' Schools.	Percentage of column 2 to column 3.
1	2	3	4
1901-02	664	4,320	15.4
1911-12	1,283	6,251	20.5
1921-22	1,716	9,677	17.8
1931-32	3,287	14,435	22.8
1941-42	14,091	29,208	48.2
1951-52	44,474	51,660	86.1
1953-54	47,144	55,414	86.9
1954-55	52,919	61,205	86.5

Of course, it would not be quite correct to ascribe all the increase in the number of girls attending secondary schools for boys (that is shown in the above table) to the desire of parents for co-education. A closer analysis shows that several other factors are also at work. Most of the secondary schools for girls are located in the larger towns and hence the girls in the smaller places to which Secondary Education has now spread are required to attend boys' schools as a matter of necessity. Even in the larger towns, the number of separate schools is not very large and they are not equally accessible from all parts of the city or town. Hence, parents naturally prefer to send their daughters to a boys' school which

is nearer home than to a more distant separate school for girls. Sometimes the higher efficiency often maintained by the boys' schools tempts the parents to prefer them to girls' schools. As these are genuine grounds for sending girls to boys' schools the Department permits co-educational secondary schools to function under certain restrictions. For example, it takes care to see that there is no unhealthy competition between co-educational schools and girls' schools and also discourages girls from attending boys' schools in places which have independent schools for girls. When the admission of girls to boys' schools is inevitable, the Department compels the managements concerned to provide special amenities to girls such as separate retiring rooms, provisions of special sanitary arrangements, etc. The managements of co-educational schools are also required to employ at least one woman teacher for every 40 girls attending the school. Under the circumstances, this is the best that can be done.

Another important development of this period is the emphasis placed on Government high schools for girls. As stated before, Government conducted only one high school for girls and six middle schools in 1936-37. Government now decided that it would conduct a few high schools for girls, although the general policy is to leave this field to private enterprise as far as possible. Accordingly the Middle Schools at Thana, Nasik, Ahmednagar, Dharwar and Bijapur have been developed into full-fledged High Schools and an attempt is being made to develop them by introducing diversified courses in home science and art. Besides, a number of secondary schools for girls, which used to be conducted in the past by merged Indian States, had to be taken over by Government. Some of these, however, have already been transferred to private enterprise and the final decision on a few still left with the Department is under consideration.

In the field of *Primary Education*, the expansion is even greater. The number of separate schools for girls increased from 1,478 in 1936-37 to 2,049 in 1954-55; and the total number of girls reading in primary schools increased from 2,87,061 in 1936-37 to 12,79,175 in 1954-55. The main reason for the increase is the policy of extending compulsory education adopted by the Popular Ministry. Under this programme, compulsion was applied simultaneously to boys and girls, in contrast to the policy of the earlier period under which compulsion was applied to boys only in most cases, and it was generally believed that compulsion should be applied to boys only in the first instance and extended to girls at a later date when public opinion was sufficiently educated. This decision of the Popular Ministry, therefore, is of fundamental importance in the history of the education of women. It makes the beginning of a new order under which equality of treatment was to be provided for both the sexes.

Another important development in this field was the introduction of a course of *equal* duration for all primary schools whether meant for boys or girls. As stated earlier, the primary course for girls' schools was spread over *seven* years (Infants Class and Standards I-VI) in 1936-37 while that for boys' schools was spread over *eight* years (Infants Class and Standards I-VII). The Popular Ministry which was pledged to remove all discrimination against women, revised the primary course, abolished the Infants Class, and introduced a *common* course spread over *seven* years

for all primary schools in the State. Thus, the inferiority that had been attached to the primary course for girls since 1877-78 was finally eliminated. As can be easily anticipated, this introduction of a common course removed the need for conducting a separate school leaving examination for girls at the end of the primary course. Hence, a common *Primary School Certificate Examination* was introduced in 1948 for boys and girls alike. This was a still further step in granting equality to women.

These far-reaching reforms in the curriculum of primary schools enabled Government to re-organise the training course of women primary teachers as well. In 1936-37, the training course for women was spread over three years; but even at the end of the third year, they reached the same point which men reached at the end of the second year of their training. With the introduction of a common Primary School Certificate Examination for boys and girls, the admission standard for women's training colleges became equal to that of men's training colleges. Hence, a continuous training course of two years' duration was introduced both for men and women teachers during this period. Thus disappeared the last vestige of the old discrimination against women.

The number of women teachers employed in primary schools also increased very considerably during this period—from 5,416 in 1936-37 to 20,230 in 1954-55. The number of training colleges for women was also increased and in 1954-55, as many as 56 training institutions for women with an enrolment of 4,636 were conducted as against 17 training colleges for women with an enrolment of 947 that existed in 1936-37. Of these 8 were conducted by Government, and 48 by private bodies. The percentage of trained women primary teachers was 64.3 in 1954-55.

A very important decision taken by Government during this period was to encourage co-education at the primary stage. Ever since the beginning of the present century, the public opinion in the State was gradually veering round in favour of co-education at the primary stage as the following statistics will show:—

TABLE No. 11 (8)
Co-education in Primary Schools (1901-55)

Year. 1	No. of Girls in Boys' Schools. 2	No. of Girls in Girls' Schools. 3	Percentage of column 2 to column 3. 4
1901-02	27,438	48,630	56.4
1911-12	44,058	82,645	53.3
1921-22	60,076	1,01,009	59.5
1931-32	97,348	1,64,977	59.0
1941-42	2,03,362	2,23,382	91.0
1951-52	7,65,200	4,31,435	177.4
1953-54	7,50,918	4,19,446	179.0
1954-55	8,42,136	4,37,039	192.7

It will be noticed from the above table that in 1901-02, the number of girls attending boys' schools was about half of that in girls' schools, and that by 1941-42, it was about equal to it. The stage was thus ripe to take

a bold step ahead. Government, therefore, decided that, wherever possible, common schools for boys and girls should be maintained in Standards I-IV and that separate schools for girls should be encouraged only in the upper primary stage. This policy has enabled the Department to eliminate small and uneconomic primary schools for girls and has led to an economy in expenditure simultaneously with an increase in efficiency. The new common schools for boys and girls are generally provided with a mixed staff and hence the special needs of girls are properly taken care of. The public has also supported this policy with the result that the number of girls in boys' schools is now about twice the number in girls' schools and the position in 1901-02 is exactly reversed.

In the field of *Special Education*, the progress was as notable as in other branches. In 1901-02, the number of special schools was 11 with an enrolment of 345; in 1936-37, it increased only to 51 special schools with an enrolment of 3,291 pupils (of these the adult classes for women numbered only 9 and had an enrolment of 643 only); but in 1954-55, the number of special schools for girls increased to 2,641 and they had a total enrolment of 77,801. Of these, the adult classes numbered 2,262 with an enrolment of 59,903. The progress has obviously no precedent in the history of education in this State.

In so far as the *organisation of the Department* is concerned, steps were taken, at the beginning of this period, to strengthen the special inspectorate for girls' schools. As stated earlier, there were only two Inspectresses of Girls' Schools (in Indian Educational Service) in the whole State in 1936-37.* As the number of educational divisions was four, it was decided to have one woman Inspecting Officer for each division and two additional posts were created in B. E. S. Class II (Women's Branch) and were designated as Assistant Inspectresses of Girls' Schools. The two Indian Educational Service posts were now assigned to the Bombay and Poona Divisions and the two Class II posts were assigned to the Northern and Central Divisions. Moreover, it was also decided to appoint at least one or two women as Assistant Deputy Educational Inspectresses with a view to encouraging the education of girls at the primary stage. When the number of educational divisions was increased to five in 1945 or to six in 1948, an additional post of an Assistant Inspectress of Girls' Schools for each new division was created in B. E. S. Class II (Women's Branch).

In 1953, the question of the future of the special inspectorate for girls' schools came up for consideration again as a part of the re-organisation of the Department. Under the directive of the Constitution, the separate existence of the Women's Branch had already been done away with and the Department now had a common cadre of inspecting staff without any discrimination on the ground of sex. The time was, therefore, ripe to take a more fundamental decision in the matter. After a careful review of the problem, Government directed that all posts of Assistant Inspectresses of Girls' Schools be abolished and that only two posts of Inspectresses of Girls' Schools should be retained—one for the Northern-half of the State and the other for the Southern-half. The principle that

* The third post of the Inspectress of Girls' Schools was for Sind and ceased to exist with its separation in 1936-37.

the separate schools for girls should ordinarily be inspected by women officers is still accepted. But even the abolition of special inspectorate for women does not create any difficulties in this matter because a fairly large number of inspecting officers at every level are women.

A word is necessary here regarding the post of the Inspectress of Urdu Girls' Schools. This was provisionally created in 1913 on a representation made by the Muslim Educational Conference in 1912. The post was made permanent in 1915 and in 1930, it was assigned to B.E.S. Class II (Women's Branch). This post continued to exist till 1953, when it was abolished as a result of the re-organisation of the Department and the general decision to discontinue the special inspectorate for girls' schools.

11 (6). *Conclusion.*—A hundred and thirty years have now passed since the first primary school for girls was started in Bombay City by the American Mission. It is, therefore, worthwhile from this centenary year of the Department to have both a retrospect and a prospect of the education of women in this State.

In 1824, no girls attended schools of any type; and even the schools for boys were few. Thirty years later, when the Department of Education was first created, 1,06,040 boys were at school as against about 3,500 girls. At the turn of the nineteenth century, 93,063 girls were under instruction as against 5,46,805 boys. In 1936-37, the total number of girls under instruction in all recognised and unrecognised institutions was 3,26,571 as against 10,09,318 boys. In 1954-55, however, the number of girls under instruction was as high as 14,98,276 as against 33,88,895 boys. In other words, there is one girl under instruction for every two boys in 1954-55, whereas only one girl was under instruction for every 34 boys in 1855. The figures of literacy are available from 1891 and are given in the following table:—

TABLE No. 11 (9)
Literacy of Men and Women (1891-1951)

Year.	Number per 1000 (all ages) who are literate.		
	Men.	Women.	Total.
1891	91	5	57
1901	108	9	68
1911	114	13	71
1921	134	23	89
1931	143	24	99
1941	287	84	183
1951	355	129	246

N. B.—The statistics from 1891 to 1931 are for Bombay Presidency inclusive of Sind and Native States.

It will be evident, therefore, that the gap between the education of men and women was very wide a hundred years ago; and that not only has the education of men and women expanded largely since 1855, but the gap between the two is also being very rapidly bridged. As the

education of women has been accelerating in a sort of geometric progression, there is every reason to hope that it will become equal to that of men at no distant date.

A similar revolution has been brought about in the social status of women also. From the very unsatisfactory position described in the opening paragraph of this Chapter, women have now advanced to a position which is very near to perfect equality with men. The constitution has put a ban on all discrimination on the ground of sex; several disabilities of women have been remedied by legislation and steps are already being taken to remove some others that can be remedied by an Act of the Legislature. Even in respect of that discrimination which can only be overcome by awakening social conscience and educating public opinion, a great improvement is already noticed, partly as a result of the spread of education among women and partly as a consequence of men's realisation of the injustice that used to be done to them in the past. It may, therefore, be said that the women of this State are now well set on their march to the goal of complete political, economic, and social equality with men and that it will not be long before they reach it.

A hundred years ago, the education of women was regarded as a special problem that bristled with difficulties and had to be handled with extreme caution. To-day, it has almost ceased to be a problem of education. All that is indicated to safeguard the interests of women is a rigid adherence to the doctrine of "no discrimination on the grounds of sex" and an intensive effort to develop a good system of education for the people as a whole.

CHAPTER XII

EDUCATION OF THE BACKWARD CLASSES

12 (1). *The Backward Classes in the State of Bombay.*—There are several underprivileged communities in Indian Society whose education presents special problems to the administration. These are broadly described as the "backward classes" and consist of three important groups, viz:—

(a) *The Scheduled Castes.*—This group includes all those communities at the lowest rung of the Hindu social ladder which have been traditionally regarded as "untouchable." The mere fact of 'untouchability' created such social and economic barriers to the education of these classes that they had to be regarded as "backward" and special measures had to be adopted to spread education among them and to raise their social status.* This group consists of 36 communities with a total population of 30,03,024.

(b) *The Schedule Tribes.*—This group includes the aboriginal and hill tribes in the State. Due mainly to their isolation from the body of the Indian Society, these ancient communities live a life of such poverty, ignorance and degradation that the problems of their education and social

* Prior to 1934 the scheduled castes were variously described as low castes, or depressed classes.

and economic amelioration needs special attention at the hands of Government. All these communities also have, therefore, been regarded as backward.* This group consists of 24 communities with a total population of 33,59,305.

(c) *Other Backward Classes*.—This group consists of communities which are approximately at the same stage of social and educational advancement as the communities included in the list of Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes and are, in fact, so backward as to need special assistance from the State funds. The erstwhile "Criminal Tribes" (*Vimukta Jatis*), nomadic and semi-nomadic tribes, communities which follow begging as their hereditary occupation, some backward communities which migrated from Sind, etc, are included in this group. At present this group consists of 160 communities with a total population of 44,89,594. It is likely that some alterations may be made in this list as a result of the recommendations made by the Backward Classes Commission.

The population of the backward classes is not uniformly distributed between the different districts of the State so that the intensity of the problem varies from area to area. The following table shows the distribution of the backward class population in every district of the State according to the Census of 1951:—

TABLE NO. 12 (1)
Backward Class Population according to District (1951)

Sr. No.	Name of the District.	Total Population according to 1951 Census.	Backward Class Population 1951.	Percentage of Backward Class Population to Total Population.
1	Greater Bombay ...	28,39,270	2,96,100	10.43
2	Ratnagiri ...	17,11,964	4,94,110	28.86
3	Kolaba ...	9,09,083	1,89,138	20.81
4	Poona ...	19,50,976	3,93,924	20.19
5	North Satara ...	11,75,309	2,05,824	18.51
6	Sholapur ...	15,05,316	3,37,290	22.41
7	South Satara ...	10,00,141	1,66,110	16.61
8	Kolhapur ...	12,27,547	1,61,436	13.15
9	Thana ...	15,18,050	5,46,735	36.02
10	Nasik ...	14,29,916	5,53,831	38.73
11	East Khandesh ...	14,71,351	3,48,373	23.67
12	West Khandesh ...	11,46,024	5,83,977	50.46
13	Ahmednagar ...	14,10,873	3,81,204	27.02
14	Dangs ...	47,282	42,177	89.18
15	Ahmedabad ...	16,85,630	5,98,835	35.53
16	Kaira ...	16,12,426	4,18,455	25.95
17	Mehsana ...	14,71,662	2,32,231	15.73
18	Amreli ...	3,17,203	1,03,228	32.54
19	Sabarkantha ...	6,84,017	3,88,080	56.73
20	Banaskantha ...	7,48,796	3,59,840	50.76
21	Surat ...	18,27,842	12,59,150	68.88
22	Broach ...	7,06,035	4,05,496	57.43
23	Panchmahals ...	11,48,432	8,02,244	69.86
24	Baroda ...	11,94,746	6,20,672	51.95
25	Dharwar ...	15,75,386	2,76,523	17.60
26	Belgaum ...	17,26,908	2,77,721	15.99
27	Bijapur ...	13,96,185	2,72,187	19.50
28	Kanara ...	5,17,780	1,37,032	26.47
Total ...		3,59,56,150	1,08,51,923	30.18

* Prior to 1950, the Scheduled Tribes were known as "Aboriginal and Hill Tribes."

12 (2). *Education of the Backward Classes prior to 1855*.—In so far as the indigenous schools are concerned, it may be said that they did practically nothing for the education of the backward classes. The children belonging to the scheduled castes were not admitted to the indigenous schools. Similarly, there is no evidence to prove that the pupils belonging to the scheduled tribes attended the indigenous schools, and in all probability there were no indigenous schools at all in the backward and undeveloped tracts where these communities generally lived. But in so far as the other backward classes are concerned, the analysis of the pupils of indigenous schools given by some of the Collectors in the Enquiry of 1824 shows that a very small minority of the children of these communities found their way into the indigenous institutions. In South Konkan, for instance, it was reported that 3 Agri, 4 Koli and 1 Patharwat—i.e. 8 pupils of backward classes attended the schools in a total of about 1,500 scholars of all castes.* In Khandesh, 28 backward class pupils—26 Vannari and 2 Manbhav pupils—attended the schools in a total of 2,022 pupils of all castes;† and in Dharwar, 4 Dher, 2 Korawar, and 3 Helaver i.e. 9 backward class pupils attended the schools in a total of 2,348 children of all the castes put together.‡ The returns from other districts giving the castes of pupils are not available. But what is true of these three districts can also be taken as applicable to all the other districts, and it may safely be concluded that not even one per cent. of the pupils attending the indigenous schools belonged to what are now known as the "backward classes." The education of the backward communities was, therefore, almost non-existent at the opening of the nineteenth century and the indigenous schools of the period catered only to the needs of the advanced or upper classes of society.

When the modern system of education began to be organised after 1818, the efforts of Government were first directed to the education of the upper classes of society. This was partly due to the Downward Filtration Theory which stated that the duty of Government was only restricted to educating "natives of good caste and the superior classes" in the first instance and to leave it to them to educate the lower classes at a later date. Political considerations also lent support to the same policy because the East India Company was anxious to win the goodwill of the influential upper classes with a view to consolidating its empire and it was hoped that such goodwill could be obtained by educating boys of the upper classes and by appointing them to hold the subordinate posts under Government. Consequently, the education of the backward classes generally came to be neglected in the State system of education for a fairly long time.

The pioneer attempts for the education of the backward classes were, therefore, made by the missionaries. The chief object of the missions being proselytisation, the missionaries were attracted to the backward classes among whom they expected to reap a rich harvest of conversions. These hopes did not greatly materialise, but they did a signal service in

* R. V. Parulekar: Survey of Indigenous Education in the Province of Bombay (1820-1830), pp. 49-50.

† Ibid, pp. 116-118.

‡ Ibid, pp. 148-149.

spreading education among these people. Unfortunately, the detailed statistics of backward class pupils attending the mission schools in 1855 are not available. But the report of the Director of Education for 1855-56 mentions that the Free Church of Scotland conducted some schools for the Dhers at Surat.* It may be assumed that an appreciable number of backward class pupils must have been enrolled in the mission schools of this period because, unlike the Government or indigenous schools, they were specially known as "offering protection and instruction to low caste boys and to the waifs and strays of the bazar who would otherwise be uncared for."†

It is remarkable that even at this early period, the conscience of the Hindu Society had been awakened and that Indian private enterprise had already entered the field. The great social reformer of Maharashtra, Mahatma Phule, founded schools for scheduled caste children in Poona in 1852. These were the first institutions of their type, not only in Bombay but in the whole of India. He had to face strong opposition from high caste Hindus in his endeavour; but undaunted by it, he continued to conduct these institutions as long as possible.‡ As teachers were not available to teach in these schools, he and his wife worked as teachers and kept the schools going. Government also assisted them from the Dakshina Fund. But unfortunately, these efforts did not succeed owing partly to the opposition of the higher castes and partly to the unwillingness of the scheduled castes themselves to receive any education.

12 (3). *Education of the Backward Classes (1855-81).*—When the Department of Education was created in 1855, the problem of the education of the backward classes slowly began to attract attention. At this time, the scheduled castes and the scheduled tribes were the only two major groups that were considered as backward and the concept of "other backward classes" had not yet been developed. Some steps were, therefore, taken by the Departmental officers, even at this early date, to develop the education of these two groups.

(a) *Admission of Scheduled Caste Pupils to Government Schools (1856-58).*—In June, 1856, a scheduled caste student applied for admission to the Government school at Dharwar. This application raised a very delicate and difficult problem. On the one hand, Government felt that the petitioner had "abstract justice on his side."‡ but it also felt that the admission of the petitioner might result in the withdrawal of all the caste Hindu children from the school so that the institution would be practically useless to the people as a whole. Admission was, therefore, refused on the ground that "to interfere with the prejudices of ages in a summary manner for the sake of one or a few individuals would probably do great damage to the cause of education."‡

The matter, however, did not rest there. These orders were noticed by the Government of India who was not pleased with the decision taken and observed that if such a case had occurred in the State of Bengal, the

petitioner would not have been refused admission to Government school.* The matter even went up to the Court of Directors who passed the following orders on the subject in their Despatch dated 28th April, 1858:—

"The educational institutions of Government are intended by us to be open to all classes, and we cannot depart from a principle which is essentially sound, and the maintenance of which is of the first importance. It is not impossible that, in some cases, the enforcement of the principle may be followed by a withdrawal of a portion of the scholars; but it is sufficient to remark that those persons who object to its practical enforcement will be at liberty to withhold their contributions and apply their funds to the formation of schools on a different basis."†

This was the final decision on the subject and from 1858, all Government schools were theoretically thrown open to the pupils of all castes.

(b) *Education of the Scheduled Castes (1858-82).*—These orders of 1858 opened all Government schools to the scheduled caste pupils in theory. But there were several practical difficulties in executing them. The Department, therefore, tried to work out a practical compromise "without exciting much irritation or inflicting any permanent injury on education"‡ and did not make any attempt to enforce them rigorously. In so far as the colleges were concerned, the question did not arise at all because no scheduled caste boy was educated enough during this period to seek admission to a college. In respect of the secondary schools also the difficulty disappeared fairly quickly, partly because of the awakening of public conscience and partly because of the firmness displayed by the Department. By 1882, therefore, the scheduled caste pupils were able to obtain admission to any secondary school and were also able to obtain considerable equality of treatment with other pupils. But at the primary stage, the problem was extremely difficult. A large number of the primary schools were situated in villages where the traditional prejudice against untouchability was very deep-rooted. In these cases, the scheduled caste pupils were often refused admission in practice, although it was theoretically not permissible to do so. In some cases, pressure was exerted on the scheduled castes themselves and they were induced not to send their children to the common schools. Even when admission was granted, the scheduled caste pupils were made to sit apart from the other pupils and were not allowed to take part in the common activities of the school. Very often the primary schools were located in temples and, in such cases, the scheduled caste pupils were not even allowed to enter the building and had to receive such instruction as was available by sitting outside the temple. In spite of these humiliating conditions, however, a fairly large number of scheduled caste pupils was admitted to the modern

* Para. 110.

† Report of the D. P. I., Bombay, 1872-73, p. 66.

‡ Report of the D. P. I., Bombay, 1856-57, p. 89.

* Report of the D. P. I., Bombay, 1856-57, pp. 89-90.

† Report of the Indian Education Commission, p. 515.

‡ Report of the Director of Public Instruction, Bombay, 1856-57, p. 95.

educational institutions. The Annual Report for 1881-82 gives the following details of the enrolment of 'untouchable' pupils:—

TABLE NO. 12 (2)

Enrolment of Scheduled Caste Pupils (1881-82)

Institutions.	Enrolment of Scheduled Caste Pupils in			
	Government Schools.	Aided Schools.	Inspected Schools.	Total.
Colleges
High Schools
First Grade Middle Schools	...	4	7	27
Second Grade Middle Schools	...	6	2	8
Primary Schools	...	2,826	214	423
Girls' Schools	...	29	49	23
Indigenous Schools	7	...
Schools of art	...	2
Night Schools	...	36	...	6
Special Schools	...	1	42	...
Total	...	2,904	319	470
				3,693

As a practical measure to meet the difficulties created by the prejudice of caste Hindus against the admission of scheduled caste pupils to common schools, the Department tried the idea of establishing "Special Primary Schools" for these pupils. The schools were generally situated in the scheduled caste localities; whenever possible, they were placed in the charge of a teacher belonging to the scheduled castes, and when no such teacher was available, an attempt was made to find a sympathetic caste Hindu or Muslim teacher and he was given a special reward if he showed good progress. In 1881-82, there were 16 such special schools with an enrolment of 564 pupils. This shows that only about one-sixth of the scheduled caste pupils enrolled in the primary schools as a whole attended these special schools. They cannot, therefore, be said to have been popular or to have materially obviated the difficulties created by the public prejudice against the admission of scheduled caste pupils to the common schools. Moreover, these special schools could only be organised in localities where the scheduled caste population was sufficiently large; and such localities were naturally few. The contribution of these special schools to the spread of education among these classes cannot, therefore, be described as significant during this period.

(c) *Education of the Aboriginal and Hill-Tribes (1854-82).*—The difficulties that attended the education of the aboriginal and hill-tribes during this period were of an entirely different type. There was no popular prejudice against the admission of the pupils of these communities; but the activities of the Department during this period were mostly restricted to the urban areas and the bigger villages so that the forest tracts or small villages in which these communities usually lived had not yet been brought

under the influence of the modern system of education. Consequently, very few pupils of the aboriginal communities found their way into the schools of this period.

Some attempts to educate these communities seem, however, to have been made very early. The report of the Director of Public Instruction for 1856-57 mentions "schools for wild tribes, such as the Bheels, of which there are several, not under this Department, founded chiefly by the police authorities. There are three of these schools under the officiating Bheel agent in Khandesh, which have been visited by the Deputy Inspector and reported on. The same general description may be given of them all. The boys are wayward, and given to playing truant. No fee is levied, and not much is learnt."* On the whole, however, these early schools do not appear to have succeeded because it was reported in the same year that the attempt "to educate the Bheels must be pronounced as hitherto a failure."†

The Department does not seem to have attempted to establish separate schools for the aboriginal and hill-tribes on any appreciable scale. Some free schools for these poor people seem to have been organised during this period. But the results were not encouraging and it was found that they were utilised more by the common people than by the aboriginals or hill-tribes themselves.‡ The Department, therefore, adopted two main methods to educate these communities: (1) to encourage the enrolment of the children of these communities in the common schools; and (2) to prepare teachers belonging to these communities and to place them in charge of primary schools in areas where these communities lived in large numbers. Some success attended these labours because in 1871-72, 1,017 children of these tribes were reported to have been enrolled. In 1881-82, their total enrolment in public schools increased still further to 2,734 of whom 6 were studying in first grade aided middle schools, 2,717 in primary schools (2,173 in Government schools and 544 in Inspected schools), and 11 in night schools. Of these, 15 were girls—all in primary schools.

12 (4). *The Recommendations of the Indian Education Commission (1882).*—The brief account of the development of education among the two major groups of backward communities given in the previous paragraphs will show how neglected it was in 1881-82. The Indian Education Commission, therefore, naturally came to the conclusion that the progress made in the education of the scheduled castes was far from satisfactory and that the efforts of Government had "failed to give education

* P. 95.

† Report of the Director of Public Instruction, Bombay, 1856-57, p. 96.

‡ "At Bhurgaum an ordinary Government vernacular school was lately opened, on the petition of parents, chiefly Government servants, who were desirous of securing for their children that superior education which, they believe is only attainable in schools managed by the Educational Department. Yet it is highly important to observe, the attractions of gratuitous instruction have, in their eyes, so far overpowered the prejudices of caste, that sixty parents send their boys to be taught side by side with the outcast Bheels, while forty or fifty only are willing to pay a monthly anna for admission to the exclusive and superior Government School" Ibid.

to the aboriginal races of India;”* and made the following recommendations:—

Aboriginal and Hill Tribes

(1) In areas inhabited by the aboriginal races, Primary Education should be spread through the Departmental schools where necessary and the work should not, in all cases, be left until private bodies come forward to take it up.

(2) Children of the aboriginal tribes should be exempted from payment of fees.

(3) When children of aboriginal tribes are found sufficiently educated to become school masters among their own people, attempt should be made to establish them in schools within the borders of their tribes.

(4) Private organisations willing to undertake the work of education among aboriginal tribes should be liberally assisted.

Scheduled Castes

(1) The principle that no child shall be refused admission to an educational institution conducted by Government merely on the ground of his caste shall be re-affirmed and applied with due caution to every institution not reserved for special races, which is wholly maintained at the cost of public funds.

(2) The establishment of special schools or classes for children of scheduled castes be liberally encouraged in places where there is a sufficient number of such children to form separate schools or classes, and where the schools maintained from public funds do not sufficiently provide for their education.

It will be seen that there is nothing very novel about these recommendations. All the suggestions made in them were known to the Department prior to 1882 and some action on all of them was already being taken in this State. The Indian Education Commission, therefore, did not make any material contribution in so far as the methods of developing education among the backward classes are concerned. Its importance, therefore, lies mainly in the fact that it awakened the conscience of Government to make more extensive attempts for the development of education among the backward classes who were sadly neglected in the past. The Commission pointed out that the “natural movement of society from status to contract involves in India a severe social struggle, and it is necessary that these classes which are least able to help themselves should receive from the State proper attention to their claims of education.”† This recommendation was emphasised by the Government of India and consequently all State Governments and the Departments of Education began to give special consideration to the education of the backward classes and the attempts made in this behalf began to be specifically reported in the Annual Reports of the Departments. There was, therefore, a more rapid and comprehensive development of education among these classes during the next forty years.

* Report of the Indian Education Commission, p. 509.

† Report, p. 516.

12 (5). *Education of the Backward Classes (1881-1921).*—The Report of the Indian Education Commission, as stated above, led to greater efforts by States Government for the spread of education among the backward classes. During the first twenty years, however, the progress was inconsiderable owing partly to financial stringency and partly to disasters like plague and famine. The early years of the present century, however, saw a turn for the better. Thanks mainly to the work of Indian agencies of social service like the Depressed Class Mission of Poona, social conscience was now greatly awakened to the injustice that had been done to the backward classes and their claims began to be pressed largely upon Government. Consequently, a portion of the Central grants received between 1901 and 1915 was diverted to the education of the backward classes and was utilised for such purposes as organisation of special schools, central schools with hostels, and award of scholarships. But the educational and other amenities actually provided to these classes fell far short of public expectations and Government began to be frequently criticised for its neglect of their interests. In 1915, therefore, a detailed Press Note was issued describing the educational facilities which Government had provided to the backward classes till then. But this was described as a magnificent *non-possumus* by Shri Dadabhoy who moved a Resolution in the Legislative Council recommending the adoption of adequate measures for the amelioration of the moral, material and educational conditions of the backward classes. Government, therefore, increased the scale of its efforts in this field still further. In 1919-20, a recurring grant of a lakh of rupees was sanctioned for the purpose and was utilised for “day schools and classes, boarding schools, night schools, itinerant teachers, a special inspecting officer, scholarships, prizes, free supply of books, slates and writing material and gifts of clothes.”* By 1921-22, therefore, the educational facilities provided for the backward classes were considerably increased.

The progress achieved during this period will be described in the following paragraphs under four heads: (a) Education of the Scheduled Castes; (b) Education of the Scheduled Tribes; (c) Education of the Criminal Tribes; and (d) Special Facilities awarded to all the Backward Classes.

(a) *Education of the Scheduled Castes (1881-1921).*—The education of the scheduled castes showed good progress between 1881-82 and 1921-22. The number of special schools which stood at 16 in 1881-82 increased to 515 (429 schools and 86 classes) in 1921-22 and their enrolment increased from 564 to 18,222 (about 48 per cent. of the total enrolment of these castes in all educational institutions). It must be admitted, therefore, that in spite of all their disadvantages, the special schools made a significant contribution to the development of education among these communities during this period.

Even in the common schools, the enrolment of the scheduled caste pupils increased from 3,129 in 1881-82 to 18,836 in 1921-22.† Of these, 1 was in a college, 252 in secondary schools, 18,462 in primary schools, 31 in training institutions and 90 in other special schools. So far as the secondary schools were concerned, the conditions improved materially during this period and

* Report of the Director of Public Instruction, Bombay, 1919-20, Para. 115.

† Excluding 1,208 pupils studying in unrecognised institutions.

not only were scheduled caste students freely admitted to these educational institutions, but they were also given an equality of treatment. Old practices like making the scheduled caste boys sit apart in the class or excluding them from the common activities of the school now disappeared almost completely. This was due partly to the general awakening of the social conscience, but more especially to the spirit of social justice that was spreading in the minds of the younger generation. At the primary stage, however, the difficulties still continued to be insurmountable. After 1882, the Department began to insist more particularly on the admission of scheduled caste pupils to the common primary schools; but it could not insist on an equality of treatment being given. In the urban primary schools, the conditions were much better; but in the primary schools of the rural areas or orthodox localities, discrimination against scheduled caste pupils still continued to persist. They generally sat apart from other pupils and did not share in the common activities of the school. There were several orthodox teachers who refused to touch them and corrected their exercises from a distance. When an occasion arose to punish a pupil, a special cane was kept for the purpose and one of the scheduled caste pupils was ordered to execute the punishment to the pupil concerned according to the instructions of the teacher. In the schools conducted by the local bodies, the only principle which was officially laid down was that the scheduled caste pupils "shall be so placed that they shall have shelter from the sun, rain and cold, and shall receive a due share of the teaching of the school."* But this modest requirement also could not always be fulfilled, and even as late as in 1917, the Departmental officers complained that "many of the primary schools are held in the temples and private rented houses where caste prejudices will not allow them to enter and segregation is necessary. In other schools, too, they have often to sit apart, sometimes on the verandahs, sometimes in the compound and sometimes on the window-sill and thus cannot receive their due share of attention from the teacher."† Attempts were occasionally made by enthusiastic Departmental officers to take a firm stand and to insist on the recognition of the rights of the scheduled caste pupils. But the results were not happy. One glaring instance from the Kaira District is on record, "where too hasty action on the part of the local officers led to five or six large schools being closed for years, to the huts and crops of the Depressed class people being burnt in one village and to the imposition of a heavy punitive post on that village for two years."‡ It is true that such extreme cases were rare. But public resistance to the grant of equality of treatment to the scheduled caste pupils was often intense and, therefore, the Department had to be content to move with the times and be satisfied with such improvement as was possible without provoking too much public opposition.)

A very significant development of this period was the large increase in the number of primary teachers belonging to the scheduled castes. The progress in this field was achieved in three stages. In the first stage, encouragement had to be given to the education of the scheduled caste boys

at the upper primary level. On account of poverty, the children of these castes were withdrawn from school very early and hardly any of them proceeded to the upper primary standards. Hence financial help was given to students in the form of scholarships and free supply of clothes, slates and books. This encouraged the attendance of pupils at the upper primary stage and in consequence a few scheduled caste pupils began to appear at and pass the P.S.C. Examination (which was then known as the Vernacular School Final Examination) and thereby qualify themselves for admission to training institutions. In 1921-22, as many as 97 pupils appeared for this examination and 44 passed.

The next stage was to admit the scheduled caste boys to training institutions. Here, they had to pass through another hurdle—the Entrance Examination. As it was not generally possible for these pupils to secure admission to training institutions in open competition with other communities, special consideration began to be shown in admitting them. As training colleges were necessarily residential institutions, the grant of equal treatment within the institution was an extremely difficult problem as it involved, not only intermixing, but interdining as well. Hence segregation was generally allowed in deference to the popular prejudice and with this compromise, the training of scheduled caste pupils as teachers of primary schools was pushed ahead. In 1921-22, there were as many as 426 scheduled caste teachers in primary schools.

The difficulties, however, did not end here, and the appointment of scheduled caste teachers in primary schools presented another set of problems. A large number of these teachers were employed in special schools for the scheduled castes; and in their case, no difficulties arose. But when an attempt was made to appoint a scheduled caste teacher in a common school, opposition had to be faced from the public as well as from the caste teachers. The Department, however, remained firm and gradually, assistant scheduled caste teachers in common schools came to be tolerated, especially in towns and advanced localities. But even in 1921-22, it was next to impossible to appoint a scheduled caste teacher as the headmaster of a common school. "Low caste masters," wrote an Educational Inspector in 1916-17 "with high training qualification sometimes embarrass the administration, when they become senior and entitled to comparatively high pay, as low caste schools are usually small and of a type that is generally put under a master of the lowest grade. It is, of course, impossible to put a low caste master in charge of an ordinary full primary school."*

(b) *Education of the Scheduled Tribes (1881-1921).*—The education of the scheduled tribes also made considerable progress during this period. Their total enrolment increased from 2,734 in 1881-82 to 12,131 in 1921-22. Of these, 53 were in secondary schools, 12,038 in primary schools, 22 in training institutions and 18 in other special schools. It is also worthy of note that out of the total enrolment of 12,131 pupils, 3,360 or 27 per cent. only were enrolled in special schools or classes which numbered 117 in all. Special schools, therefore, had not proved to be as useful for the development of the education of the scheduled tribes as they had been for that of the scheduled castes.

* D. P. I.'s Quinquennial Report (1892-93 to 1896-97), p. 32.

† Ibid, (1912-17), p. 116.

‡ D. P. I.'s Quinquennial Report (1892-93 to 1896-97), p. 32.

* Report of the D. P. I., Bombay, 1916-17, p. 118.

During this period, attempts were made to prepare primary teachers belonging to the scheduled tribes. These communities were so backward and poor that the mere institution of scholarships or grant of free books and slates did not prove to be an adequate inducement to keep their children sufficiently long at school. Hence central primary schools were organised and boarding houses were attached to them. The main object of these schools was to train the pupils of the scheduled tribes for the P. S. C. Examination and then to send them on to the training college. During this period, Central Schools were established at Mokhada in Thana District, Ghoda and Ambegaon in the Poona District, Peint in Nasik District, Nandurbar and Kukurmunda in Khandesh District, Neral in Kolaba District, Godsamba and Khergaum in the Surat District, Dohad in the Panchmahals District, Diwa in the Broach District and some other places. These schools proved to be very successful and a number of teachers belonging to the scheduled tribes were trained as primary teachers. In fact, the output of teachers even exceeded the demand by 1921-22. In his report for this year, the Educational Inspector for the Northern Division expressed his anxiety about the future of the students trained in these Central Schools. The question to be decided, he wrote, refers to "the scholars trained in these schools. There is not much room for their employment as teachers now unless and until compulsory education is introduced and a number of schools opened in villages of backward class community. But that does not appear likely to be done in the near future. It is true some Godsamba scholars are appointed as Talatis and some 10 got service in the Forest Department and two or three have joined a technical school. But all cannot be absorbed in that way and if they do not get employment in the Educational or other Departments they may become discontented and may discourage their people from attending these schools. Something must, therefore, be done to turn their energies in other directions."* A close examination of the problem, however, shows that the difficulties had mainly arisen because of the view prevailing in this period that teachers belonging to the scheduled tribes should be employed in the special schools organised for these tribes and *not* in the common schools. The solution, therefore, was either to increase the number of special primary schools for the scheduled tribes to a very large extent or to appoint the teachers belonging to these tribes in the common primary schools on a scale proportional to their population. Ultimately, the latter of these solutions was adopted during the next period.

(c) *Education of the Criminal Tribes (1881-1921).*—During this period another important group of the backward classes came under the notice of Government. These were then called the "Criminal Tribes" because most of their members were usually engaged in pursuits like stealing, partly on account of a lack of settled habitation and occupation and partly on account of poverty. In order to help these communities, to improve their position and wean them from 'criminality' Government maintained special settlements at various places, the main centres being in the Dharwar, Bijapur and Sholapur Districts. The settlements were controlled by

* Report of the D. P. I., Bombay, 1921-22, p. 126.

a specially appointed Criminal Tribes Officer under the Home Department but some settlements like those at Sholapur and Baramati were under missionary management who were given capitation grants by Government. The chief aim of Government was to make these tribes forget their criminal tendencies and to enable them to settle down to peaceful pursuits. Special arrangements were also made for the education of the children in the settlements in schools which were under the control of the Criminal Tribes Officer.

From the year 1911-12, a special note on the education of these children was included in the Annual Reports of the Department. It is seen from these that the number of criminal tribes' children who were under instruction in 1916-17 was 1,348. It rose to 1,539 in 1917-18; to 2,254 in 1918-19; to 4,167 in 1919-20 and to 5,406 in 1921-22. Of the children under instruction in 1921-22, 6 were in secondary schools, 5,234 in primary schools, 3 in training institutions and 163 in other special schools. Besides, as many as 3,011 children or 55 per cent. were enrolled in 58 special schools and the rest in the common schools.

In 1921-22, 14 pupils of these tribes appeared at the Primary School Certificate Examination and 6 passed. The number of primary teachers was 20 of whom 2 were trained.

(d) *Special facilities (1881-1921).*—During this period, a number of special educational facilities were provided for the backward classes in general and the scheduled castes in particular. Some idea of these may be had from the educational facilities sanctioned in 1921-22. In that year 4 scholarships of Rs. 20 p.m. were reserved for the scheduled castes in arts and science colleges and 12 scholarships of Rs. 25 p.m. were reserved for the backward classes in the colleges of medicines, engineering and commerce. Moreover, 140 scholarships in secondary schools were also reserved for the pupils of the scheduled castes. The value of these scholarships varied from Rs. 10 in Standards V-VII to Rs. 15 in Standards X-XI and the holders were also given freestudentships if they attended secondary schools conducted by Government. In primary schools, 30 scholarships of Rs. 5 p.m. were reserved for the scheduled castes in Standards V-VII and a sum of Rs. 10,000 was sanctioned for the free supply of books, slates etc. to the pupils of Standards I-IV. Besides, all backward class pupils were admitted free in Local Board and Municipal primary schools.

From the account of the development of the education of backward classes between 1881 and 1921 given above, it will be seen that considerable progress had been made as compared with the earlier period between 1855 and 1881. The number of children of these classes studying in educational institutions increased very largely and several of them entered the secondary schools and colleges also. Similarly, there was a substantial increase in the number of backward class teachers working in the Department. The popular prejudice against the admission of scheduled caste pupils to common schools had greatly weakened, although it continued to persist in some quarters. But probably, the most important development of this period was the entry of private Indian enterprise in this field and the awakening of the higher Hindu castes to their duty of

ameliorating the conditions of the backward classes in general and eradicating the evil of untouchability in particular. As early as in 1900, there is a reference to the Maharashtra Village Education Society which conducted a school at Baramati which was doing good work.* In 1906-07, 40 Kaliparaj children (23 boys and 17 girls) were studying in the Mahajan Home Industrial School, Surat, maintained by private funds and managed as a charitable institution by a Hindu gentleman. All the children were provided with lodging and boarding in the school. Boys were taught carpet-weaving and dyeing and the girls, embroidery. The industrial school and the primary schools for boys and girls attached to it received grant from Government.† The Prarthana Samaj conducted a night school in Bombay in or about 1900, at Dongri which was well attended.‡ In 1906, Shri Vithal Ramji Shinde founded the Depressed Class Mission Society in India—an organisation which did most valuable service to the cause during this period. With the help of Sir Narayan Chandawarkar and Seth Damodardas Sukhadwalla (both of the Prarthana Samaj) he opened the first school for the backward classes at Parel. The field of activity of the Society soon spread to other parts and in 1913-14, the Society opened a Karnatak branch with the headquarters at Hubli where a boarding house was established. In 1916-17 it was reported that the Society “maintained one A. V. School, 5 primary schools with 454 pupils, one night school with 24 pupils, one industrial school with 39 pupils and one primary school (with a tailoring class) with 46 pupils. Besides the Mission has three boarding houses, one in Bombay, one in Poona and one at Hubli. All the schools conducted by the Mission were awarded grants at the special rate of one half of their actual expenditure. The boarding houses, too, were awarded a maintenance grant not exceeding Rs. 2,000 per annum.”§ Moreover, several leaders of public opinion among the caste Hindus were now making earnest efforts to protect the interests of the backward classes and to eradicate the evil of untouchability. By 1921-22, these were becoming fairly successful and the traditional prejudices on the subject were fast weakening. Besides, it was now being realised that the education of the backward classes cannot really be isolated from their social, political and economic status and it was being urged that the life of these people should be remoulded as a whole and that measures for their social and economic amelioration should be pursued side by side with those directed towards their educational improvement.

12 (6). *Education of the Backward Classes (1921-37).*—With the transfer of Education to Indian control, the cause of the backward classes began to receive even greater attention than in the past. The British administration often hesitated to fight the traditional prejudices of the people because of its alien character and the consequent desire to maintain social and religious neutrality. But these considerations did not weigh with the Indian Ministers and they were able to adopt stern measures to eliminate the old discrimination against these unfortunate people. Moreover, the influence of Mahatma Gandhi began to be felt over Indian life during this period. He was a staunch opponent of all social injustice

* Report of the D. P. I., Bombay 1899-1900, p. 56.

† Ibid, 1906-07, p. 65.

‡ Ibid, 1899-1900, p. 57.

§ Ibid, 1916-17, p. 116.

and, in particular, he was out to eradicate the evil of untouchability. His continuous preaching on the subject, his epic fast for preventing separate electorates for the scheduled castes, his all-India tour for their uplift, and the work of the Harijan Sevak Sangh which he established, awakened the conscience of Hindu society to an extent to which it had never been awakened in the past. This created a very helpful background for undertaking schemes for the amelioration of the backward classes. Consequently the education of these classes made great progress between 1921 and 1937 and, in spite of the general financial stringency that prevailed at this time, much larger funds were now allocated to this cause than at any other time in the past.

A very important development of this period was the appointment of a special committee to enquire into the social, economic and educational conditions of the backward classes. It is popularly known as the *Starte Committee* after its Chairman, Mr. C. H. B. Starte, I. C. S., the then Criminal Tribes Settlement Officer. The Report of this Committee, which was the first of its type to be appointed in this State, is a very important document. Its principal recommendations were the following:

- (1) Reaffirmation of the Government policy that there should be equality of treatment for all classes of children in publicly managed educational institutions;
- (2) Encouragement of common schools as opposed to separate schools for backward classes;
- (3) Desirability of a more frequent interchange of teachers between the common schools and the separate schools;
- (4) Abandonment of the practice of labelling schools as ‘depressed classes schools’ or ‘low caste schools’ etc.;
- (5) Recruitment of teachers belonging to the aboriginal tribes to training colleges with a view to their employment in schools intended mainly for the children of these classes;
- (6) Introduction of compulsion and specialised teaching by means of experiments in selected areas occupied by the aboriginal and hill tribes;
- (7) Grant of special promotions to teachers taking special interest in the education of the backward class children; and
- (8) Increasing the number of backward class teachers in primary schools.

These were accepted by Government and in consequence the progress of education of the backward classes was not only more rapid but more systematic as well.

On the recommendation of the Starte Committee, Government created a separate Backward Class Department and appointed a special Backward Class Officer at its head (1930-31). He was also given the necessary staff to enable him to discharge his duties to the backward classes. Besides, a Backward Class Board whose duties were consultative and advisory was created in 1931-32.* Thus an independent and whole-time State agency to watch over the interests of the backward classes was created for the first time and it materially helped the progress of their education.

* For the original composition of this Board and for the subsequent changes in its constitution, see the Annual Reports of the Backward Class Department.

Another important development of this period was the grant of political privileges to the backward classes. Seats on local bodies and in the Legislature were reserved for them. Besides, Government also decided to recruit persons belonging to the backward classes in greater proportion than in the past and, in consequence, seats were reserved for backward class candidates in all Departments of Government. Similarly, the Backward Class Department that was created during this period began to undertake activities for the social and economic development of these classes. Consequently, there was some improvement in the general social status of the backward classes during this period—this was especially noticeable among the scheduled castes which were now being rapidly urbanised—and it gave a still further stimulus to their educational development.

On account of the favourable conditions created by these developments the enrolment of pupils belonging to the backward communities increased greatly during this period as the following table will show:—

TABLE No. 12 (3)

Enrolment of Pupils from the Backward Classes (1921-37)

	Scheduled Castes.	Scheduled Tribes.	Other Back- ward Classes.	Total.
1921-22				
Colleges	1	1
Secondary Schools	252	53	6	311
Primary Schools	36,684	12,038	5,234	53,956
Training Colleges	31	22	3	56
Other Special Schools	1,298	18	163	1,479
Total	38,266	12,131	5,406	55,803
1926-27				
Colleges	9	...	110	119
Secondary Schools	967	54	407	1,428
Primary Schools	58,651	19,171	37,342	1,15,164
Training Colleges	64	9	12	85
Other Special Schools	569	1,613	924	3,106
Total	60,260	20,847	38,795	1,19,902
1931-32				
Colleges	43	17	68	128
Secondary Schools	1,396	90	612	2,098
Primary Schools	64,239	23,180	40,517	1,27,936
Training Colleges	46	15	13	74
Other Special Schools	963	704	626	2,293
Total	66,687	24,006	41,836	1,32,529
1936-37				
Colleges	58	1	83	142
Secondary Schools	1,801	86	734	2,621
Primary Schools	77,717	28,668	33,749	1,40,134
Training Colleges	87	10	33	130
Other Special Schools	823	340	494	1,657
Total	80,486	29,105	35,093	1,44,684

N. B.—The figures given under 'Other Backward Classes' for 1921-22 are those of Criminal Tribes only.

(2) The concept of 'Other Backward Classes' was first brought into existence in 1931-32 as a result of the recommendation of the Starte Committee.

(a) *Education of the Scheduled Castes (1921-37).*—The total enrolment of the scheduled caste pupils increased materially during this period from 38,266 in 1921-22 to 80,486 in 1936-37. Of these 58 were in colleges, 1,801 in secondary schools, 77,717 in primary schools, 87 in training institutions, and 823 in other special schools.

The most important development of this period was that intensive efforts were made to remove the disabilities under which scheduled caste pupils had to study in primary schools. As early as in 1923-24, Government issued orders that "No disability should be imposed on the children of the depressed classes in any school conducted by a public authority in its own or in a hired building, and that where schools are held in temples or in buildings hired subject to the exclusion of these castes, other arrangements should be made without delay. Government further ordered that no grant should be paid to an aided school to which pupils belonging to the depressed classes are refused admission by reason of their caste."* The second part of these orders was new and this condition was being applied to aided schools for the first time, while the first part was, more or less, a reaffirmation of an old policy in very strong terms. But both the parts of this order were now enforced with a rigour that was unknown so far. All kinds of direct and indirect opposition was tried by the orthodox elements—withdrawal of children from schools, exertion of indirect pressure upon the scheduled castes, temporary strikes etc.; but the firm attitude of the Department always triumphed in the long run and greater equality of treatment began to be accorded to scheduled caste pupils. It is true that some extreme examples of discrimination occasionally came to light.† But such cases became rarer with the passage of time and a beneficent circle was soon established—the weakening of the popular prejudice against untouchability leading to greater equality of treatment to scheduled caste pupils in primary schools and the grant of such equality leading, in its turn, to a further weakening of the popular prejudice against untouchability.

The history of the special primary schools for the scheduled castes was rather chequered during this period. In the earlier years when larger funds became available, the number of these special schools and classes went on increasing till 1930-31 when they numbered 620 with an enrolment of 21,497 pupils. But then the tide began to turn, because the Starte Committee recommended their discontinuance. It said:—

"The separate schools have admittedly been a very potent influence in the past in helping the Depressed Classes to obtain such education as was possible, and without such institutions in the past, the educational progress of the Depressed Classes would not have been possible. Nevertheless it must be admitted that from the standpoint of standard of education, the separate school is an inefficient school. Moreover, the existence

* Report of the Director of Public Instruction, Bombay, 1923-24, p. 84.

† The Starte Committee mentions the following instance which was discovered as late as in 1930-31.

"The most extreme case actually seen by a member of the Committee during its investigation was in Nasik district where a Depressed class boy was made to sit on a platform (used by cultivators when watching their crops) exposed to the sun and rain outside the school which was held in an upper room, whilst the teacher occasionally leaned out of the window to give instruction to him. On rainy days he had to go home." Report, p. 14.

of such schools perpetuates the difference between the depressed classes and the rest of the community instead of helping to remove it. Again, being for the most part one-teacher schools there is an absence of that stimulus and supervision which is exercised over the other teachers by the Head Master in a large school. The Depressed Classes themselves not being keen on education do not put that pressure of public opinion on the teacher to be regular in attendance and keen on his duties, which is exercised by the more advanced communities over their schools, with the result that the only thing upon which the proper conduct of the school can depend is the conscientious regard of the Depressed Class teacher himself to his duties, which in the absence of supervision is likely to be at a very low ebb. But assuming all these things to be equal, the consideration of economy alone, we fear, must set a limitation upon the education of the Depressed Classes, if their education is to wait upon the opening of separate schools. But it cannot be gainsaid that separate schools involve duplication of educational agencies which must result in a needless duplication of costs and to that extent must lead to a curtailment in the growth of their education. We, therefore, agree that the principle of Common schools must be preferred to that of separate schools.*

In view of the awakening of public opinion, the situation was considered ripe enough to carry out this reform and Government directed that the special schools and classes for the scheduled castes should be gradually closed. Hence their number fell to 567 with 21,126 pupils in 1931-32 and to 411 with 16,050 pupils in 1936-37.†

While the special schools and classes were decreasing on the one hand, the enrolment of scheduled caste pupils in the common schools was increasing on the other. Consequently, the percentage of scheduled caste pupils enrolled in special schools decreased considerably as shown in the following table:—

TABLE No. 12 (4)

Special Schools and Classes for Scheduled Caste Pupils

Year.	Number of Special Schools and Classes for the Scheduled Caste Pupils.	Number of Pupils in Special Schools and Classes.	Number of Scheduled Caste Pupils in Common Schools.	Percentage of Pupils in Special Schools and Classes to Total Pupils of Scheduled Castes.
1921-22	515	18,222	18,462	48
1926-27	572	20,761	37,890	35
1931-32	567	21,126	43,113	33
1936-37	411	16,050	61,667	20

Another important development of this period was the establishment of hostels for the scheduled caste pupils. Government established its own

* Report, pp. 15-16.

† The Bombay Municipality gave a bold lead in the matter by closing all special schools and classes for the scheduled caste pupils as early as in the quinquennium 1922-27.

hostel in Poona in 1922-23 and decided to give fairly liberal assistance to private hostels as well. Consequently, the number of hostels for scheduled caste pupils increased considerably during the period under review and stood at 15 in 1936-37. Of these, only one was for girls* and the total grant-in-aid paid to all hostels was about Rs. 9,000. An interesting development in this field was the organisation of cosmopolitan hostels at Satara and Poona by Shri Bhaurao Patil. These institutions admitted pupils of all castes and reserved a substantial number of seats for scheduled caste pupils. In 1936-37, for instance, the Satara Hostel had 164 boarders of all communities of whom 72 were from scheduled castes, the corresponding numbers for the Poona Hostel being 20 and 9 respectively. Obviously, such hostels had a far-reaching influence in eradicating untouchability.†

(b) *Education of the Scheduled Tribes (1921-37).*—The enrolment of the pupils from the scheduled tribes increased from 12,131 in 1921-22 to 29,105 in 1936-37. Of these, 1 was in a college, 86 in secondary schools, 28,668 in primary schools, 10 in training institutions, and 340 in other special schools. It will, therefore, be seen that the progress of these tribes also was as rapid as that of the scheduled castes. The number of special primary schools started for these tribes also increased from 117 in 1921-22 to 206 in 1936-37 and their enrolment from 3,360 to 8,856. Besides, the number of central schools also increased and stood at 15 in 1936-37. They continued to do their useful work of preparing the pupils of the scheduled tribes for appointment as teachers in primary schools.

A special development of this period was the intensification of the non-official attempts to educate the scheduled tribes. In this connection particular mention must be made of the work done by such social workers as Acharya S. R. Bhise and the late Shri Amritlal Thakkar.

(c) *Education of the Criminal Tribes (1921-37).*—The education of the criminal tribes also showed some progress. In 1936-37, it was reported that "Out of the total population of 8,231 in settlements proper, the number of children attending day and night schools are 1,924 and 228 respectively and out of the total population of 7,212 in free colonies, the corresponding numbers are 1,336 and 210. Thus the number of children attending schools per thousand of the population is 261.3 for settlements and 214.4 for free colonies. In addition 344 children from the settlements and free colonies attend outside primary schools and 15 children attend English schools. Two hundred and fifty seven non-criminal tribes children and 31 children belonging to criminal tribes from outside, attend settlement schools..... eightythree lads have been apprenticed to various trades viz., carpentry 51, tailoring 2, weaving 24, motor drivers 2, chappal making 3, and printing 1. Training in Agriculture is given to 19 boys in agricultural settlements and free colonies. There are 302 children in the Manual Training Classes in settlement schools."‡

* This was conducted by the Seva Sadan Society at Poona.

† The control of all these hostels was transferred from the Education to the Backward Class Department in 1934-35.

‡ Report of the Director of Public Instruction, Bombay, 1936-37, p. 219.

(d) *Education of the Other Backward Classes (1921-37).*—The total number of pupils from other backward classes (inclusive of the criminal tribes) enrolled in different educational institutions in 1936-37 was 35,093 of whom 83 were in colleges, 734 in secondary schools, 33,749 in primary schools, 33 in training institutions, and 494 in other special schools.

(e) *Reservation of seats in Government Educational Institutions (1921-37).*—During this period, Government decided to reserve a certain percentage of seats in all Government educational institutions for the pupils belonging to backward classes. This step was necessary because backward class pupils were not able to get admission to important institutions like colleges of medicine, engineering and commerce or to teacher training institutions in open competition with other communities. The reform had a very healthy effect upon the education of these communities and opened several new careers to them.

(f) *Backward Class Teachers (1921-37).*—As a part of its policy to employ backward class candidates in all Departments of Government in proportion to their population, Government abandoned its earlier policy of restricting the appointment of backward class teachers mostly to the special schools organised for these classes. Backward class teachers, therefore, began to be appointed in larger numbers in the common primary and secondary schools and the earlier prejudice against the employment of the scheduled caste teachers in common schools—whether as assistants or as headmasters—disappeared almost completely during this period. In 1936-37, therefore, the total number of backward class teachers employed in the Department was 1,812 (1,657 men and 155 women) of whom 1,017 belonged to scheduled castes 333 to the scheduled tribes and 462 to the other backward classes.

(g) *Special facilities (1921-37).*—The special educational concessions awarded to backward class pupils in the earlier period were continued in this also and the scope of some of them was even enlarged. But, mainly owing to financial stringency, the extent of the concessions fell far short of the demand, especially as the enrolment of the backward class pupils had nearly been trebled between 1921-1937.

12 (7). *Education of the Backward Classes (1937-55).*—In 1937 a new chapter was opened in the history of the education of the backward classes because a Popular Ministry which had been pledged to eradicate untouchability and to improve the lot of these neglected social groups, came into power. Consequently, very active measures for the general amelioration of the backward classes and the development of their education were immediately taken in hand. The war years slackened the pace of this drive to some extent. But on the return of the same Ministry to power in 1946 and the attainment of Independence in 1947, the efforts to develop the education of the backward classes were renewed with still greater vigour. The last eighteen years, therefore, form the most eventful period in the education of the backward classes in this State.

A number of special committees were appointed during this period to investigate into the problem from different points of view. In 1937, Mr. D. Symington, the then Backward Class Officer, was placed on special duty to enquire into and report upon the condition of the Bhils in the

partially-excluded areas of the State. His report* gives a vivid picture of the deplorable conditions under which the aboriginal and hill tribes live, and contains many valuable recommendations for the amelioration of these conditions. In 1942, the Caretaker Government appointed an Ad Hoc Committee under the Chairmanship of Mr. Maclachlan, I. C. S., to advise it on the various needs of the backward classes and to suggest ways and means for utilising the sum of Rs. 25,00,000 earmarked by Government for ameliorative measures including the educational uplift of these classes. The Committee made a number of recommendations, some of which were immediately accepted by the Government and various additional facilities were provided for the education of these classes with effect from 1943-44 for a period of 5 years in the first instance. These facilities included the opening of new and the expansion of the existing hostels, conversion of primary schools into agriculture bias schools, the institution of freestudentships and stipends to pupils in various kinds of educational institutions, and other facilities such as provision of mid-day meals to children, award of prizes to pupils, and allowances and bonuses to teachers. In 1946, another Committee was appointed under the chairmanship of Shri D. N. Wandrekar to enquire into the educational needs of the *Adivasis* in the Thana District. This Committee made several important recommendations which included the following: (1) The system of Basic Education is more suitable for the *Adivasis* than the old tradition of academic schools; (2) Compulsion should be introduced in all the talukas where the *Adivasis* live in large numbers; (3) Central schools should be established for a group of 10 village schools; (4) School buildings of the nature of semi-pucca cottages should be constructed in the *Adivasi* areas; (5) The teachers for *Adivasi* areas should be specially trained; (6) Surveys of districts where the *Adivasi* population is found in large numbers should be carried out and a net work of schools should be carefully planned and organised. Many of the recommendations of this Committee were accepted by Government and, in consequence, a great fillip was given to the education of the scheduled tribes in general and those in the Thana District in particular.† In 1949, another Committee was appointed under the chairmanship of Shri D. N. Wandrekar to study the conditions of the backward classes in the merged areas of the State. The Report of this Committee is also a very useful document and makes several important recommendations with the object of extending the concessions and facilities provided by Government to the backward classes in these less developed territories.‡ Needless to say, these and some other Reports that were published during this period on the different aspects of the problem were of material assistance in developing the education of the backward classes on right lines.

The Backward Class Department also was reorganised and expanded during this period. When it was originally created in 1930-31, its staff

* Report on the Aboriginal and Bhil Tribes of the Partially Excluded Areas in the Bombay Presidency by D. Symington.

† Report of the Committee appointed by the Government of Bombay for a Programme of Educational Expansion in the *Adivasi* Areas of the Thana District.

‡ Report of the Committee on the amelioration of the Backward Classes in the merged States Areas of the Bombay State.

was small and its activities were largely restricted in scope. In 1934-35, the management of backward class hostels was transferred from the Education to the Backward Class Department and the Backward Class Officer was also appointed as the Chief Inspector of Certified Schools under the Bombay Children's Act, 1924. In spite of these changes, however, the direct activities of the Department were restricted, in 1936-37, to the sanction of lump sum scholarships of about Rs. 2,500 and the sanctioning of grants-in-aid to 17 backward class hostels (which amounted to about Rs. 9,000). But with the undertaking of a large programme for the general amelioration of the backward classes by the Popular Ministry in 1937, the activities of the Department began to expand rapidly. In 1946-47, therefore, the Department was fully reorganised with a Director of Backward Class Welfare at its head. He was assisted by Assistant Directors of Backward Class Welfare, each of whom was in charge of a group of 5 or 6 districts and by a number of Backward Class Welfare Officers, each of whom was ordinarily in charge of one or two districts. Besides, a post of a special officer for the protection of aboriginal and hill tribes was also created for a time under the cadre of Backward Class Welfare Officers was fully organised. Besides, the Backward Class Board was reconstituted and Committees were established in every district to assist the officers of the Department in discharging its responsibilities. In short, it may be said that the Backward Class Department was made a more powerful agency during this period.

Another important development of this period was that the Government of India began to sanction grants for the welfare of the backward classes since 1951-52 with special reform to the welfare of the scheduled tribes, ex-communal tribes and the removal of untouchability. Several of the schemes prepared by the State Government were held up in the past on financial grounds; but with the large financial assistance that was now made available by the Centre it became possible to expand the work of ameliorating the general conditions of the backward classes to a very great extent.

But by far the most significant development of this period is the organisation of an intensive programme for the social, political and economic development of the backward classes. But the description of this programme, which is executed through the Backward Class Department, is beyond the scope of this Review. The interested reader is referred to *Privileges Provided by Bombay State Government for Backward Classes* (which is an official publication periodically revised and republished*) and to the *Annual Reports of the Backward Class Department*. In the following paragraphs, therefore, only the activities calculated to develop the education of the backward classes, especially those that are being implemented through the Education Department, will be noticed in some detail.

* The last edition has been published in 1955 and has been corrected up to 31st March, 1954.

Age Group	Population (Lakhs)
1921-22	0.5
1926-27	1.0
1931-32	1.5
1936-37	2.0
1941-42	2.5
1946-47	3.0
1951-52	3.5
1953-54	4.0
1954-55	4.5

5. PZ P. POGNA, 1958

(1) *Increase in the Enrolment of Backward Class Pupils.*—Between 1937 and 1955, the enrolment of backward class pupils increased tremendously. at all levels. This will be seen from the following table:—

TABLE No. 12 (5)

Enrolment of Backward Class Pupils (1937-55)

Year.	Colleges.	Secondary Schools.	Primary Schools.	Training Institutions.	Other Special Schools.	Total.
1936-37	142	2,621	1,40,134	180	1,557	1,44,684
1941-42	336	4,863	2,31,322	315	8,942	2,45,778
1946-47	548	8,652	2,34,713	720	17,312	2,61,945
1951-52	1,431	27,145	7,08,029	1,622	80,361	8,18,588
1953-54	1,829	30,119	6,61,895	1,674	1,03,080	7,98,597
1954-55	2,261	29,327	7,51,117	2,341	1,30,417	9,15,463

It will be seen that in a short period of 18 years, the enrolment of backward class pupils has increased from 1,44,684 in 1936-37 to 9,15,463 in 1954-55 which implies more than a five-fold increase.

There is another way of looking at these statistics. In 1954-55, the total population of the non-backward classes was 251 lakhs and the enrolment of their pupils was 40 lakhs which works out at 15.9 per cent. of the population. In the case of the backward classes, the total population was 108 lakhs and the total enrolment was 9 lakhs which works out at 8.3 per cent. only. It may, therefore, be said that the task which yet remains to be done is twofold: (1) Firstly, the enrolment of the backward class pupils has to be increased until it is not less than that of the other communities; (2) and Secondly, the general, social and economic conditions of the backward classes will have to be so improved that they would be able to maintain the enrolment of their children on par with that of the other communities, even when the special educational concessions now given to them are withdrawn *in toto*.

(2) *Closure of Special Schools and Classes.*—As a part of the general policy of eliminating all discrimination against the scheduled castes, Government decided to close down all special schools and classes conducted for them. Consequently, the number of such special schools fell from 411 in 1936-37 to 251 in 1940-41. In 1946-47, they were done away with altogether.

As a corollary to this policy, Government now began to insist that the scheduled caste pupils admitted to common schools should be given perfect equality of treatment. Owing partly to the disappearance of the traditional prejudice against untouchability and partly to the firmness displayed by Government, all discrimination against scheduled caste pupils admitted to common schools has now disappeared almost completely.

(3) *Expansion of Hostels.*—In 1936-37, there were only 17 hostels in the State. Most of them catered for the pupils of the scheduled castes only and the total grant-in-aid sanctioned to them was Rs. 9,106. During this period, the number of hostels increased very largely. Government established an additional hostel at Hubli in 1949 and a third at Ahmedabad in 1954. Grants-in-aid were also sanctioned to local bodies in order to enable them to conduct backward class hostels. Moreover, a very large number of such hostels was organised by voluntary agencies during this period, especially because liberal non-recurring grants for buildings and equipment and recurring capitation grants for maintenance were sanctioned by Government. The following table gives the details of these hostels.*:—

TABLE No. 12 (6)

Backward Class Hostels (1937-55)

Year.	Number of Backward Class Hostels.	Amount of Grant-in-aid Sanctioned.	Amount of Building Grants Sanctioned.
		Rs.	Rs.
1936-37	17	9,016	...
1941-42	62	63,546	...
1946-47	100	1,55,266	22,400
1951-52	197	6,76,891	38,353
1953-54	217	10,54,097	53,849
1954-55	234	12,25,956	94,989

All these hostels cater not to scheduled caste pupils only but to all backward class pupils. Several of these are cosmopolitan and reserve a certain part of their accommodation for backward class students. Recently, the Backward Class Department has been encouraging cosmopolitan hostels and, for this purpose, a scheme under which capitation grants are given for the non-backward class pupils also, has been sanctioned.

(4) *Special facilities.*—The following, among others, are some of the important educational concessions sanctioned by Government to these classes:

(a) Exemption from payment of fees in colleges, secondary schools and primary training institutions to eligible backward class pupils.

(b) Special scholarships to eligible backward class students at higher rates than those for open scholarships in all kinds of educational institutions and stipends in primary training institutions.

* All the relevant details of the backward class hostels are reported upon annually by the Backward Class Department.

(c) Exemption from the payment of examination fees at the High and Middle School Scholarships, Drawing Grade, etc. Examinations.

(d) Concessional examination fee rates at the Primary School Certificate Examination.

(e) Exemption from the payment of room-rent for the hostels attached to Government and non-Government institutions in the case of those who are awarded freeships and/or scholarships.

(f) Financial assistance in the shape of lump sum scholarships to poor and deserving pupils given by the Backward Class Department for the purchase of books, stationery equipment, etc., and for the payment of S. S. C. and University Examination fees.

(g) Reservation of seats in Government secondary schools and colleges including professional colleges.

(h) Scholarships to deserving pupils in primary schools by District School Boards.

(i) Free distribution of clothes, books, slates and writing material to pupils in primary schools by District School Boards.

The expenditure incurred on the special facilities has increased enormously during this period especially since 1946-47. In 1936-37 the total expenditure on this head was a few thousands only, while in 1954-55 a total expenditure of Rs. 27,95,717 was incurred as shown in the following table:—

TABLE No. 12 (7)

Educational Concessions to Backward Class Students (1954-55)

S. No.	Concession.	Expenditure incurred.
		Rs.
1.	Government Special Scholarships for the Backward Class Students in Arts, Science, Commerce and Law Colleges.	3,40,376
2.	Freestudentships to Backward Class Pupils reading in Secondary Schools.	17,55,161
3.	Scholarships to Backward Class Pupils reading in Vocational High Schools.	15,191
4.	Scholarships to Backward Class Pupils reading in Secondary Schools.	1,34,128
5.	Room-rent Concession to Backward Class Pupils.	14,266
6.	Government Special Freestudentships to Backward Class Pupils in Colleges.	3,14,903
7.	Government Special Backward Class Scholarships in Primary Schools.	35,128
8.	Government Special Backward Class Scholarships for the ex-Criminal Tribes.	7,572
9.	Stipends in Training Institutions	1,34,400
10.	Fee Grants to non-Govt. Training Institutions.	44,592
Total		27,95,717

It may be pointed out here that, in addition to this expenditure of about Rs. 26 lakhs incurred under the head "37-Education," another sum of about Rs. 30 lakhs is spent on educational concessions to backward class pupils under certain other heads. This expenditure includes such items as supply of books and slates to primary school children, scholarships awarded by District School Boards to backward class pupils in primary schools and maintenance of backward class hostels by District School Boards, etc. In 1954-55, the total provision for educational concessions to backward class pupils was about Rs. 56.70 lakhs.

(5) *Compulsory Education*.—Compulsion has been introduced in Umbargaon, Dahanu and Mokhada Talukas of the Thana District and the Jhalod Taluka of the Panchmahals District for the benefit of backward class pupils. The results are not very encouraging as yet; but it is hoped that they will improve in the near future.

(6) *Criminal Tribes*.—The administration of the Criminal Tribes Settlements and Free Colonies was conducted under the old Criminal Tribes Act of 1924 until 1947-48. Government then decided that it was wrong in principle to deal with whole communities as criminals and repealed the Criminal Tribes Act in 1949. A new Habitual Offenders Restriction Act was passed for dealing with hardened criminals irrespective of the community to which they belonged and the old criminal tribes were classified as backward classes, for purposes of their welfare. The Criminal Tribes Settlements and Free Colonies were closed and most of the educational institutions which used to be conducted by the Backward Class Department for the criminal tribes have been transferred to other appropriate agencies. In short, the education of the criminal tribes has now been integrated with that of the other communities and receives the same encouragement from Government as that of the other backward classes.

In 1950, a special committee was appointed under the chairmanship of Dr. Antrolikar to investigate into the problem of the rehabilitation of the ex-criminal tribes.* This committee made a number of useful recommendations which include the provision of compulsory education of the children of these tribes, free supply of books, slates, and clothes, establishment of basic schools in localities inhabited by the old criminal tribes, grant of hostel facilities to the students of these communities, etc. Most of these recommendations were accepted by Government and a good deal of educational and general ameliorative work is now being done for these people.

Owing to the liberal assistance sanctioned by the Government of India the following special schemes have been undertaken for the educational uplift of the *Vimukta Jatis* since 1953-54:—

(i) Maintenance of five Ashram Schools-cum-Sanskar Kendras at Bagalkot, Sholapur, Hubli, Erandol and Naroda.

(ii) Conversion of primary schools in *Vimochit Jati* localities into basic schools. The settlement schools at Sholapur, Naroda and Hubli were converted into basic schools in 1954-55.

(iii) Free supply of books and slates to *Vimochit Jati* pupils in primary schools. About 16,000 pupils received benefit under this scheme in 1954-55.

* Report of the Ex-Criminal Tribes Rehabilitation Committee, 1950.

(iv) Provision of hostel facilities for *Vimochit Jati* pupils. Upto 1954-55 seven additional hostels were started at Ahmedabad, Ambernath, Dondaicha, Indi, Khanapur, Malegaon and Sholapur. A grant at a special rate of Rs. 20 per month per pupil was also paid on account of such pupils admitted to the existing backward class hostels.

(v) Creation of 100 additional sets of scholarships for *Vimochit Jati* pupils in upper standards of primary schools.

(7) *Foreign Scholarships*.—A scheme for the award of overseas scholarships to backward class students was sanctioned in 1948-49. So far, six students have been selected under the scheme and an expenditure of Rs. 50,258 was incurred for them. Three of these have returned to India on completion of their training, two are still studying abroad and one is awaiting admission to an institution in U.K.

(8) *Ashram Schools and Sanskar Kendras*.—A recent development has been the opening of Ashram Schools for Scheduled Tribes in Scheduled Areas, of Ashram Schools-cum-Sanskar Kendras for *Vimochit Jatis* in both urban and rural areas, and of Sanskar Kendras for Scheduled Caste adults in urban and rural areas. Ashram Schools and Ashram Schools-cum-Sanskar Kendras are run on residential lines for the children of Scheduled Tribes and *Vimochit Jatis* respectively though other backward class children are admitted as day-scholars to the school section of the Ashram Schools for Scheduled Tribes. The general aim of the first two kinds of institutions has been to provide an opportunity for an integrated educational activity covering the whole day for the children of both sexes of Scheduled Tribes and *Vimochit Jatis*, which would make it eventually possible for them to contribute to the social and cultural currents around them. Ashram schools are fully residential institutions and will develop progressively into first-grade schools. They will prepare children for initiative and leadership without alienating them from their own milieu. The Sanskar Kendras are intended primarily for the inculcation and spread of sanitary and civic habits among the scheduled caste adults whilst simultaneously providing a venue for cultural activities such as meetings, *Bhajan Mandalis*, etc., etc.

By the end of 1954-55, 18 Ashram Schools for the Scheduled Tribes had been sanctioned out of which 15 had started functioning, and a total grant of Rs. 5,12,881 had been paid to the voluntary agencies conducting them. 569 pupils of both sexes were enrolled in these Ashram Schools. Moreover, 7 Ashram Schools-cum-Sanskar Kendras for the *Vimochit Jatis* had been sanctioned out of which five had started to function with 210 pupils on rolls. A grant of Rs. 61,768 was paid to such institutions. Lastly, 25 Sanskar Kendras which were availed of by more than 2,000 adults were functioning by the end of the year and a grant of Rs. 31,450 was paid to them.

It may be said with confidence that these specialised institutions are fulfilling a very important function in the general uplift and amelioration of the conditions of backward classes.

12 (8). *Conclusion*.—It will be seen from the foregoing review that tremendous progress has been made in the education of the backward

classes during the last hundred years. In 1855, the social and economic conditions of the backward classes were deplorable and the popular prejudice against untouchability was extremely strong and deeprooted. Moreover, the indigenous schools of the day made hardly any provision for the education of these classes. This dark picture has been very greatly relieved during the last hundred years. To-day, the evil of untouchability is about to be eradicated from Hindu society. The social and economic conditions of the backward classes have been greatly improved owing to the spread of education among them and the special efforts that have been made in this direction specially since 1937. The enrolment of the backward classes in the educational institutions has increased very greatly and now stands at 8.3 per cent. which is about half that of the non-backward classes. The Constitution has guaranteed several special privileges and concessions to the backward classes for a period of ten years and it is quite possible that these may be continued a little longer in order to enable them to come into their own. To a historian of Indian education, therefore, no aspect of its progress is so fascinating and satisfactory as the general advancement shown by the backward classes during the last hundred years.

The ultimate objective of the Constitution is to create a Democratic Republic based on social justice and equality. This necessarily requires the lifting up of the backward classes educationally, socially and economically in such a way that the unhappy expression "backward" will cease to apply to any section of the society and a homogeneous social order would be established in place of the existing system of glaring inequalities. The progress achieved during the last eighteen years has been so significant that it may be safely predicted that such a day is not far distant.

CHAPTER XIII

EDUCATION OF THE HANDICAPPED CHILDREN

13 (1). This Chapter is divided into three sections:

- A—Socially handicapped children (including young offenders);
- B—Physically handicapped children; and
- C—Mentally handicapped children.

13 (2). *The Care and Education of Socially Handicapped Children prior to 1855.*—The earliest effort to look after the welfare of socially handicapped children in this State was made by Dr. Buist who founded a School of Industry at Sewree in 1843. This institution was planned partly on the model of the Schools of Industry and partly on that of the Ragged Schools of England. It, therefore, had two important objectives; (1) to introduce the mechanical skills of Europe in India, and (2) to ameliorate the condition of orphan or destitute children. From the very beginning, therefore, it admitted two types of pupils: (1) poor or destitute children

who were taken up for training as a measure of charity and (2) children who were voluntarily placed in the school by their guardians with the object of teaching them one or other of the useful trades in which it provided tuition. In 1850, the Government of India passed the Apprentices Act with the object of "enabling children, and especially orphans and poor children brought up by public charity, to learn trades, crafts and employments, by which, when they come to full age, they may gain a livelihood." It empowered any Magistrate or Justice of Peace to apprentice an orphan; or poor child abandoned by his parents, or any child convicted for vagrancy or other petty offence, to learn any trade, craft, or employment, which might be found suitable for the tastes and capacities of the child concerned. Accordingly poor and destitute children or juvenile offenders began to be apprenticed to Dr. Buist's School of Industry at Sewree which thus became the Reformatory School of the period.

13 (3). *The Care and Education of Socially Handicapped Children (1855-97).*—Very soon after the creation of the Education Department, an opportunity to enlarge the School of Industry at Sewree and to place it on a permanent footing presented itself. The Sassoon family, one of the great commercial houses in Bombay City, offered to donate an endowment of Rs. 30,000 and to provide a suitable house and premises for the School "on condition of the Government contributing an allowance equal to the interest on the deposit, and granting the services of an engineer as superintendent of the establishment."* This offer was accepted and from 1857-58, the School of Industry at Sewree came to be known as the David Sassoon School of Industry and Reformatory Association. It is now known by the simpler name of David Sassoon Industrial School.

This institution made good progress during the next forty years. In 1881-82, it had 208 pupils and a total annual expenditure of Rs. 13,081 out of which Rs. 3,900 were given by Government as a grant-in-aid. In 1896-97, the number of pupils stood at 181 but the total expenditure rose to Rs. 25,079 out of which only Rs. 3,600 were paid as grant-in-aid. Throughout this period, therefore, it may be said that the institution was mainly supported by endowments and public charity.

Reference has already been made to the visit of Miss Mary Carpenter to India in the sixties of the last century.† Miss Carpenter was keenly interested in jail reform and in the welfare of youthful offenders. She had done a great service to this cause in England and had helped to secure humane treatment to socially handicapped children. It was, therefore, natural that she should take interest in both these problems during her visit to India and speak to the authorities concerned to introduce reforms which were long overdue. At this time, there was no special legislation to deal with youthful offenders and juvenile delinquents could only be shown two concessions: they might be released on probation under the Code of Criminal Procedure or dealt with under Section 5 of the Whipping Act of 1864 which empowered the Court to substitute whipping for any other form of punishment in the case of youthful offenders. Moreover, the juvenile delinquents were kept in the general jails along

* Report of the Director of Public Instruction, Bombay, 1856-57, p. 97.

† See Chapter XI for details.

with grown-up convicts or habitual criminals. This naturally exercised a demoralising influence and tended to convert the casual youthful offender into a hardened criminal. It is true that the juvenile delinquents were sometimes kept in separate wards of the general jails; but even this was not a happy compromise. Miss Carpenter, therefore, pleaded for special legislation to deal with youthful offenders and for the establishment of Reformatory Schools on the lines of those which were already established in England. These proposals were discussed in detail between 1866 and 1868 but it was not until 1876 that the Reformatory Schools Act was passed by the Government of India. This Act empowered the State Governments to establish Reformatory Schools for dealing with youthful offenders of the male sex. It also provided that any youthful offender who was sentenced to transportation or imprisonment might, instead of undergoing his sentence, be sent to a Reformatory School and be detained therein for a period of not less than three or not more than seven years. This legislation, therefore, implied the first official recognition of the principle that juvenile offenders need to be "educated" rather than punished, and that they should be completely separated from the older and more hardened criminals who are found in the general jails. It was also equivalent to a declaration by Government that it shall assume direct responsibility for the proper care and education of youthful offenders.

As required by this Act, a Reformatory School was established at Yeravda in 1889. The old concept that the Reformatory School is only a jail under another name still held the field and hence, the site for the School was selected near a general jail and the plan of its buildings was so drawn up that it looked more like a jail than a school. But in spite of these limitations, the establishment of this school marks a further and progressive stage in the history of the education of the socially handicapped children in this State.

From the records of this period, some idea can be had of the manner in which this Reformatory School was made to function. It gave instruction in the three R's and some trades. Programmes of physical training and recreation were introduced and some attempts were made to make it like a residential school. But the punishment system was very severe and the common forms of punishment included caning, flogging, separate confinement, detention during recreation hours, penal diet, loss of marks and privileges, fine and reduction from the post of monitor. Moreover, the discipline was more strict than in an ordinary boarding school and reflected jail atmosphere in every walk of school life. For example, a high wall surrounded the school premises; bolts and bars occupied a prominent position in all places—workshops, sleeping barracks, school-rooms etc. and the boys who went out were regularly searched for forbidden articles on their return. The parade system was in very common use and the boys were marshalled for meals, bathing, work-shop, and school by the words of command. The management of the institution was vested in the Jail Department which had not yet learnt to make any material distinction between the conduct of a jail for adult criminals and a Reformatory School for youthful offenders. The general position, therefore, was far from satisfactory.

The David Sassoon Industrial School was also recognised as a Reformatory under the Act of 1876 and this institution together with that at Yeravda met the needs of Reformatory Schools for the entire area of the State. In 1896-97, the David Sassoon School accommodated 181 students while the accommodation at Yeravda was only 111. Hence the total accommodation was far short of the demand with the result that only a small proportion of youthful offenders could be sent to the Reformatory Schools. In spite of the new legislation, therefore, a large number of youthful offenders had either to be sent to a general jail or dealt with in some other unsatisfactory manner.* A reform and re-consideration of the whole system was, therefore, considered to be overdue.

13 (4). *The Care and Education of Socially Handicapped Children (1897-1924).*—This long desired reform came in 1897 when the Reformatory Schools Act of 1876 was repealed and replaced by an improved legislation known as the Reformatory Schools Act of 1897. While the proposals for implementing this Act were under consideration, the Secretary of State for India observed that all the Reformatory Schools in India except that in Madras State were under the management of the Jail Department, while the Reformatory School at Chingleput, Madras, was under the control of the Director of Public Instruction. On a comparison of the working of the Madras School with that of the others, the Secretary of State came to the conclusion that Reformatory Schools should be under the control of the Education rather than of the Jail Department and suggested that the adoption of the Madras system might be considered by the other States.† The proposal, however, was opposed by the Government of Bombay who agreed with the then Inspector General of Prisons who observed: "As regards the management of these institutions, I cannot say that I think there would be any better results if they were placed under the Educational Department. These schools must be run, to a certain extent, on prison lines. The inmates are criminals and cannot be treated as ordinary school boys, and it may be presumed that the Prison Department would be better able to control such places than a Department which in no way concerns itself with the management of criminals. I may state, however, that the Educational Department does exercise some supervision over the boys in the Yeravda Reformatory, inasmuch as its school is inspected annually by an Educational Officer; and a copy of his report, with remarks by the Educational Inspector, is sent to the Superintendent of the Reformatory and to the Inspector-General of Prisons."‡ Fortunately, this conservative policy was overruled by the Government of India who supported the view of the Secretary of State and issued the following orders:—

"2. The seven reformatory schools which now exist in India were established under the Reformatory Schools Act of 1876, and were the outcome of earlier arrangements under which juvenile offenders were kept in separate wards; and some endeavour was made to give them an

* Even in 1902, only 23 youthful offenders were sent to Reformatory Schools while 121 were imprisoned, 341 were whipped, 181 were discharged after admonition, and 6 were sent to their parents.

† Despatch from the Secretary of State for India dated 14th July, 1898.

‡ Paragraph 3 of letter No. 7366 of 21st November, 1898.

industrial training. Except in Madras the schools have remained under the control of the Jail Department, and they appear to the Government of India to have been conducted too much on jail principles. Whilst a strict discipline has been maintained and the health of the boys has been well cared for, insufficient attention has been paid to the reformatory training which should be the main object of the schools. In putting the boys to work enough care has not been taken to select and give a good training in some trade which will enable them to earn an honest livelihood on entering the world. The convenient utilization of the labour has not infrequently been the first consideration. The training has not always been well adapted to teach the boys self-respect and self-control and habits of care and industry in their work. The career of the boys on leaving school has not received sufficient attention, and more systematic efforts are required to obtain employment for them. The information that has been furnished regarding the boys who have left school is very incomplete, and is not satisfactory. Few boys are following the trades taught them at school, and on the whole the schools cannot be said to have had much success as reforming agencies.

3. The Governor General in Council attributes these defects mainly to the association of the reformatory schools with the Jail Department, and is of opinion that a great improvement would be effected by transferring their management to the Education Department. Reformatory schools should be mainly schools for the education and reform of boys, and not jails for their punishment by long periods of incarceration. The department which has experience of the training of youth is likely to be more successful in the management of such institutions than the department which deals with the punishment of criminals. And apart from these considerations there are around important advantages to be derived from emphasizing the school aspect of the reformatory schools. Native sympathy will be more readily enlisted on their behalf, and it will be easier for the boys to obtain employment. The school itself will be able to assist them to a greater degree than it can under the present system of management. The boys will feel less shame at having been connected with the school, and will be readier to accept its help and keep up communication with it. This will make it easier to keep a watch over the boys after they leave, both in their own interest and with a view to secure the information which is essential to enable the authorities responsible for the management to ascertain whether the work is being conducted on proper lines.

After a very careful consideration of the case, the Government of India have decided that all reformatory schools should be placed under the charge of the Education Department, and they will be glad to see the change effected as soon as this can conveniently be done.*

In accordance with these orders, both the Yeravda Reformatory School (which was under the management of the Jail Department) and the David Sassoon Industrial School (which was under the management of the Judicial Department) were transferred to the control of the Education Department with effect from 1st April, 1900.

* Resolution of the Government of India in the Home Department (Jails), No. 374-79, dated 2nd September, 1899.

Both these Reformatory Schools made considerable progress between 1896-97 and 1923-24. The management and control of the Education Department led to a real improvement in their tone and discipline and they became more like residential educational institutions and the old atmosphere of a jail was greatly changed. The following statistics show the growth of these institutions during the period under review:—

TABLE No. 13 (1)

Government Reformatory Schools in Bombay State (1896-97 to 1923-24)

S. No.	Reformatory.	Average monthly number of inmates.	Cost borne by Government.	Total cost.
			Rs.	Rs.
1	David Sassoon Industrial School, Bombay—			
	1896-97	111	3,600	25,079
	1923-24	308	63,529	89,107
2	Yeravda Industrial School, Poona—			
	1896-97	181	Not available	
	1923-24	148	17,961	24,141

Two other developments of this period deserve notice. The first was the passing of the Criminal Tribes Act in 1911 and the appointment of a Criminal Tribes Officer to administer it.* Under this Act, the cases of children belonging to the criminal tribes could be dealt with by the Criminal Tribes Settlement Officer on lines similar to those laid down for the Reformatory Schools. For this purpose, industrial schools were conducted in most Criminal Tribes Settlements with the object of training the children of these tribes to practise some trade or industry and thereby earn an honest livelihood. The Criminal Tribes Act of 1911, therefore, supplemented the work of the Reformatory Schools Act of 1897 and provided for the proper care and education of some poor and destitute children who would otherwise have not been cared for at all.

The second important development of this period was the establishment of the Willingdon Boys' Home Reformatory in Bombay in 1918. The Home was meant for children whose mother-tongue was Gujarati. It gave instruction in reading, writing, arithmetic, drawing, and drill along with practical instruction in weaving, fitting, laundry work, gardening, and waste-paper sorting. Its size was small—it admitted only 20 juveniles in 1923-24—but this, in itself, was an advantage because it was possible to give individual attention to a child in a small institution of this type rather than in a big school like that at Yeravda.

13 (5). *The Care and Education of Socially Handicapped Children (1924-55).*—In spite of all these reforms, the overall position of this social service was far from satisfactory, even in 1924. The Reformatory Schools

* For details, see Chapter XII.

Act of 1897 applied to boys only and there was no protective legislation for girls although it was badly needed. The Police Department and the Magistrates were still following the older tradition of punishment and had not yet taken to the new concept of rehabilitation in dealing with youthful offenders. Besides, there were no Juvenile Courts, no Remand Homes, and none of the modern methods that emphasise prevention rather than cure. It was, therefore, felt that the administrative arrangements for dealing with socially handicapped children and youthful offenders needed a drastic reform in order to bring them in line with the techniques adopted in the progressive countries of the West. The transfer of Education to Indian control in 1921 had made the execution of such reforms more easy. Government, therefore, reviewed the whole problem and passed the Bombay Children's Act, 1924, as a comprehensive measure to provide "for the custody and protection of *children* and young persons and for the custody, trial and punishment of youthful offenders and for the amendment of the Reformatory Schools Act, 1897, in its application" to the State of Bombay. With the enactment of this important legislation, the modern period in the history of this social service may be said to have begun.

The administrative arrangements for dealing with the care and education of socially handicapped children have been revolutionised during the last 30 years and great progress has been made in this branch of social service, especially after the coming into power of a Popular Ministry in 1937 and the attainment of Independence in 1947. The main events of this progressive epoch may be conveniently narrated under the following heads: (1) Legislation; (2) creation and development of the Juvenile Branch; (3) the appointment of Probation Officers; (4) the establishment of Remand Homes; (5) establishment of Juvenile Courts; (6) Certified Schools and Fit Person Institutions; and (7) Probation and After-Care Work.

(1) *Legislation*.—The Bombay Children's Act, 1924, as stated above, applied to boys as well as girls and thus marked a significant step ahead. Part IV of the Act dealt with youthful offenders. This was made applicable to the whole of the State and thus there was no longer any need to take action under the Reformatory Schools Act of 1897. Parts II and III of the Act were protective and preventive in character and formed the second new and distinctive feature of the Act. They dealt with the measures for the custody and protection of homeless, destitute, uncontrollable or victimised children. Before these Parts could be applied to any area, it was necessary to educate public opinion and to evolve the necessary machinery for its administration, *viz.*, the appointment of Probation Officers, the establishment of Juvenile Courts, and the organisation of Remand Homes and Certified Schools. It was, therefore, not possible to apply these Parts of the Act to large areas. In 1927, they were

applied to the City of Bombay and during the following ten years, they were extended to the seven areas mentioned below:—

Place.	Year of Application.	
(1) Bombay Suburban District	...	1931
(2) Dharwar and Hubli	...	1934
(3) Poona	...	1935
(4) Sholapur	...	1935
(5) Belgaum	...	1935
(6) Ahmedabad	...	1937
(7) Gadag	...	1937

During the next period of ten years, these Parts of the Act were extended to the following areas in addition:—

S. No.	District.	Area.	Year of Application
1	Ahmedabad	Naroda Settlement and the village of Naroda.	1941
2	Surat	The City of Surat, Rander Municipal area and a few villages.	1940
3	Poona	Mundhwa village and Mundhwa Industrial Settlement.	1941
4	Sholapur	Pandharpur Municipal Area	1940
5	Satara	Municipal limits of Satara, Wai and Karad, and a few villages.	1941
		Panchgani Municipal Area	1945
6	Ahmednagar	Municipal and Cantonment areas of Ahmednagar.	1942
7	Dharwar	Municipal limits of Ranebennur, Badgi, and Haveri.	1946
		Dharwar and Hubli Talukas	1948
8	Bijapur	Municipal limits of Bijapur	1941
		Municipal limits of Bagalkot	1946
9	Nasik	Nasik City Municipal area and Deolali Village.	1944
		Deolali Cantonment, etc.	1946
		Igatpuri and Manmad Stations	1947
10	Broach	Municipal limits of Broach and Ankleshwar.	1945
		Ankleshwar and Nabipur Railway Stations.	1947
11	North Kanara	Municipal limits of Karwar	1946
		The Ankola Panchayat Area	1948

It will be seen from the above that even in 1947-48 the Act had been extended only to a few urban areas and a few villages.

By 1947-48, the entire position of the legislation regarding socially handicapped children called for a fresh examination. There were, in fact, three different laws on the subject—the Apprentice Act, the Criminal Tribes Act, and the Children's Act. Besides, several practical difficulties had been experienced in the working of the Children's Act and its revision was also necessary to bring it in line with modern developments. A new and an improved Children's Act was, therefore, enacted in 1948. It is a comprehensive and progressive measure which entirely replaces the Children's Act of 1924. The Criminal Tribes Act was repealed in 1949; and although the Apprentice Act still remains on the Statute Book as a Central Act, there is no need now to invoke its provisions. Consequently, all work regarding socially handicapped children has now been brought under a single and progressive piece of legislation.

Parts VII and VIII of the Children's Act of 1948 refers to youthful offenders and has been made applicable to the State as a whole. Parts V and VI correspond to Parts II and III of the Act of 1924. These have been applied to all the areas, described above, to which the latter provisions were extended before 1947-48; in addition, they have since been made applicable to the following new areas (statement as on 31st March 1955):—

S. No.	District.	Area.	Year of Application.
1	Poona	Municipal areas of Baramati and Dhond including the Railway station area of the latter.	1952
2	Sholapur	Municipal limits of the Barsi Town	1950
3	Ahmednagar	Talukas of Belapur, Kopargaon, Rahuri, Sangamner, and Akola.	1949
4	Dharwar	The municipal limits of (1) Navalgund (2) Margund (3) Savanur (4) Gudgeri (5) Kundgoal (6) Shigali (7) Kamadalli (8) Samai and (9) Laxmeshwar.	1950
		The headquarters limits of the Talukas of (1) Kalahatgi (2) Shiggaon (3) Shirhathi (4) Ron (5) Bansal, and (6) Hirekerur.	1950
		The village limits of (1) Annigeri and (2) Gajendragad.	1950
5	Belgaum	Entire Belgaum Taluka	1953
6	Bijapur	Talukas of Bijapur and Bagalkot.	1949
		Entire Bijapur District	1953
7	Broach	Nanded Taluka, Jhagadia Taluka, Valia Mahal, Dediapada Taluka and Sagbara Mahal of Rajpipla Sub-Division.	1949
		Municipal limits of Jambusar Town, Amod Town and the area within a distance of five miles of the limits of that town.	1950

S. No.	District.	Area.	Year of Application.
8	North Kanara	Talukas of Karwar and Ankola, Municipal limits of Kumta, Honawar, Bhatkal, Sirsi, and Haliyal, and the headquarters places of Yellapur, Mundgod and Siddapur Talukas and Supa Peta.	1951
9	Thana	Town limits of Thana, Kalyan and Bhiwandi, and the Railway station areas at Thana and Kalyan.	1949
10	Kolhapur	Areas comprised in the District of Kolhapur.	1949
11	East Khandesh	Town limits and Railway station areas of Bhusaval and Jalgaon.	1950
12	Baroda	Municipal limits of the Baroda City	1951
13	West Khandesh	Municipal limits of Dhulia and the West Khandesh District.	1951
14	Kaira	Municipal limits of—(1) Anand (2) Dakore (3) Petlad (4) Cambaye (5) Borsad (6) Nadiad (7) Mehmedabad (8) Kapadvanj (9) Umreth (10) Sojitra (11) Dharmaj (12) Bhadrans and (13) Vase.	1953
15	South Satara	Municipal limits and the Railway station premises of the Sangli Town.	1952
		The Railway and Town areas of Miraj and Madhavnagar.	1952
		Town area of Budhgaon and Railway area of Vishrambag and Wanless Wadi.	1952
16	Kolaba	The Village of Pui (Taluka Mahad)	1954

It will be seen from the above that Children's Act work does not yet cover all the urban areas of the State and that it does not touch even the fringe of the problem in so far as the rural areas are concerned. The pace of expansion is, however, very slow because the Act cannot be extended to an area unless Remand Homes and Certified Schools are established and Probation Officers are appointed. These preparations need a good deal of spade work and the awakening of public interest and enthusiasm—especially because a large part of the funds required has to come from public charities—and they necessarily take a good deal of time. Consequently, the work that remains to be done is nearly as much as what has already been achieved.

(2) *Juvenile Branch*.—It would have been clear from the foregoing review that no specialised agency to deal with the care and education of socially handicapped children was created prior to 1927, the work having been entrusted sometimes to the Jail and sometimes to the Education Department. The Children's Act of 1924 contemplated the creation of such an agency because Section 36 provided for the appointment of a Chief Inspector of Certified Schools who would be assisted

by the necessary number of Inspectors and Assistant Inspectors. But as the implementation of the Act had to be done in a period of financial depression, no such officers were appointed; but the Director of Education was given the powers of the Chief Inspector of Certified Schools and his assistants were given the powers of Inspectors and Assistant Inspectors. This was a good expedient from the financial point of view; but it materially hindered the effective implementation of the Children's Act.

In 1933, the Starte Committee* recommended that all Children's Act work should be centralized in one agency. The reform had strong grounds in its support and was obviously long overdue. Government, therefore, accepted the recommendation and transferred all Children's Act work to the Backward Class Officer who was already dealing with the children governed by the Criminal Tribes Act. From this year, therefore, the Backward Class Officer was designated as the Chief Inspector of Certified Schools. This was some improvement because Mr. Starte, the then Backward Class Officer, had a special aptitude for the job. But the fundamental defect that no specially trained and whole-time officers were appointed for the task, was not still remedied and the Children's Act work made no appreciable advance.

A really progressive lead was, therefore, given in 1937 when the Popular Ministry sanctioned the post of an Inspector of Certified Schools. In 1939, an Assistant Inspector of Certified Schools was also appointed. The Juvenile Branch thus came into real existence in 1938-39 when it had a staff of one Inspector, one Assistant Inspector, and two clerks and was allowed to publish its own Annual Report. Children's Act work in the State began, therefore, to progress rapidly after 1938-39.

In 1947-48, a still further step was taken. The Juvenile Branch now began to be a misfit in the Backward Class Department. In the first place, the work of that Department had increased so largely that the Director of Backward Class Welfare had hardly any time to perform the duties of the Chief Inspector of Certified Schools. Secondly, with the decision to repeal the Criminal Tribes Act, there remained hardly any similarity between the usual duties assigned to the Director of Backward Class Welfare and Children's Act work. It was, therefore, decided to create an independent Juvenile and Beggars Department. The Head of this Department was designated as the Chief Inspector of Certified Schools and Institutions and Reclamation Officer. He was made responsible for all work under the Children's Act and the Juvenile Branch was transferred to his control. His other duties connected with beggars or After-care and Probation are allied to Children's Act work and assist its development. In 1947-48, therefore, a really specialised and independent agency of whole-time officers may be said to have been created to deal with socially handicapped children. Several difficulties, especially due to adequacy of staff, have still to be overcome. But it cannot be gainsaid that a good beginning has been made.

* Report on the care of Destitute Children and Young Offenders, 1933.

(3) *The Probation Officers.*—The first stage of the Children's Act work begins with the Probation Officer when he comes in contact with the child needing treatment.

The role of the Probation Officer cannot be too greatly emphasized. He interviews and observes the child and ascertains the causes of his deviation. He also prepares a plan of treatment for the child and places it before the Juvenile Court for consideration. The ultimate success of the work, therefore, depends very largely on the zeal, sincerity and efficiency of the Probation Officers.

Besides this, a Probation Officer has to shoulder various other responsibilities which include organisation of the Remand Home, enquiry of references made by Juvenile Courts and by the Chief Inspector of Certified Schools, and supervision of cases released by Juvenile Courts or from the Certified Schools.

Probation Officers can be grouped in three categories, viz., (1) Probation Officers of Government cadre; (2) Probation Officers directly recruited by the District Probation and After-Care Associations; (3) Voluntary Probation Officers appointed at places where District Associations are not established. The Voluntary Probation Officers are paid a small honorarium for supervision work done by them.

In 1938-39, there were only 3 whole-time Probation Officers in Bombay City and 6 in the districts. Besides, there were about 58 Honorary Probation Officers. In 1954-55, there were 52 whole-time Probation Officers and 5 Chief Officers and about 150 Honorary Probation Officers. This, in itself show, not only the increase in work, but the increase of public interest as well in this social problem of great importance.

(4) *Remand Homes.*—The proper working of the Children's Act requires that children placed before the courts should be kept in suitable Remand Homes or places of safety pending the consideration and disposal of their cases. The Remand Home serves several purposes. It provides safe accommodation for children who have been arrested under the Act and in whose cases enquiries need to be made. It serves as an observation centre for the personal study of the children and it also provides a useful deterrent to uncontrollable children who can be brought to realise the consequences of their bad conduct by a partial curtailment of their liberty.

In 1927, when the Children's Act was first brought into operation, there was no Remand Home at all. In 1938-39, their number increased to seven; in 1947-48, it stood at 17, and in 1954-55, their number has increased to 30—one being conducted by the Children's Aid Society, Bombay, and 29 by the District Probation and After-Care Association. Besides, 20 private institutions which provide limited accommodation for children under trial have also been declared as Remand Homes. On the 31st of March, 1955, there were 1,434 children on remand under the Children's Act.

In spite of this increase, however, there is considerable congestion in most Remand Homes and there is an urgent need to increase their number.

The Remand Homes are also recognised as Fit person Institutions under the Bombay Children's Act and a number of children are committed to them usually for short-term treatment as well as to serve as complementary institutions to Certified Schools when there are no vacancies available in the latter. On 31st March, 1955, there were 518 children (469 boys and 49 girls) sheltered in Remand Homes on a committal basis.

(5) *Juvenile Courts*.—After the child has been remanded and observed carefully in a Remand Home by a Probation Officer, the third step is taken and the child is brought before a Juvenile Court.

Prior to 1927, all cases of youthful offenders or socially handicapped children were tried by ordinary courts. But under the Children's Act of 1924, special Juvenile Courts began to function since 1927. The central importance of this institution in Children's Act work is well described by the Starte Committee which observed that the Juvenile Court is the pivot on which the whole Children's Act turned. The purpose of the Act in spirit depends on the quality of the work of the Juvenile Courts. The child's appearance before the Court may well constitute the cross-roads in his life—the right or wrong turning depending upon the Court's order.

By 1938-39 when the Juvenile Branch published its first Report, 10 Juvenile Courts had been established and an idea of the amount of work turned out by them could be inferred from the following statistics:—

TABLE NO. 13 (2)
Juvenile Courts (1938)

Juvenile Court.	Date of Establishment.	Number of cases in 1938.
1. Bombay City ...	1927	1,128 (remand cases)
2. Bandra ...	1931	63
3. Kurla ...	1931	20
4. Dharwar ...	1934	11
5. Hubli ...	1934	98
6. Poona ...	1935	187
7. Sholapur ...	1935	59
8. Belgaum ...	1935	36
9. Ahmedabad ...	1937	180
10. Gadag ...	1935	23
Total ...		1,805

In 1947-48, the number of Juvenile Courts rose to 18 and to 81 in 1954-55. The number of cases dealt with rose to 6,370 in 1947-48 and to 11,990 in 1954-55.

But this increase in the volume of cases is not the only or even the sole criterion of the valuable contribution which the Juvenile Courts are making to the solution of this social problem. Their real contribution

lies in the relief from psychological trauma that they save to these unhappy children. In the old days, children were arrested by Police Officers in uniform, handcuffed and paraded through the streets and tried in the general courts with their awe inspiring atmosphere. The Juvenile Courts have changed all this undesirable state of affairs. These Courts are presided over by a Stipendiary Magistrate and by one or two Honorary Lady Magistrates. The children are thus assured of a more sympathetic and humane hearing than in the past. Their cases are now put before the Court, not by a public prosecutor who is out to prove his case, but by a trained Probation Officer who has studied the case carefully and has drawn up a tentative programme of future treatment. The trial is held not in the court room, but in the homely and informal atmosphere of the Remand Home itself. Moreover, the officers who have to be present at the trial are generally dressed in mufti. Consequently, the child does not suffer any of the mental agony which was so common a feature of the old juvenile trials.

It was not an easy matter to bring about this change. The old ideas died hard and even in 1938-39, cases were reported where children were brought to the Certified Schools roped, handcuffed, and accompanied by an armed guard. But fortunately such cases are now relegated to history. The Police and the modern Juvenile Courts show a keen appreciation of the principles of the Children's Act work and give more emphasis to the welfare of the child than to the offence which he has committed.

(6) *Certified Schools*.—Generally children brought before the Juvenile Court are released under the supervision of a Probation Officer thus offering them treatment in the open as opposed to institutional commitment. But if the home conditions of a child do not warrant such treatment, on account of extreme poverty, unfit guardianship, drunkenness of the father or disagreement between the parents, resulting in a broken home or any such cause, the child is committed to a Certified School till the age of 18 for being educated and trained in some useful trade, and also in literacy according to his or her abilities. Efforts are thus made to turn him into a good citizen.

The second stage of the Children's Act work begins, therefore, with the commitment of a child to a certified school.

The Children's Act of 1924 introduced the new expression "Certified School" in lieu of the old phrase "Reformatory School" the penal connotation of which was rather undesirable. Consequently, the three Reformatory Schools of 1923-24 were automatically deemed to be Certified Schools under the Children's Act. In 1938-39, their number increased to 17. It rose to 23 in 1947-48 and to 28 in 1954-55. Their total accommodation increased from 476 in 1923-24 to 3,204 in 1954-55.

Of the 28 Certified Schools, six are major institutions. Two of these are run by the Children's Aid Society, viz., (1) the David Sassoon Industrial School, Bombay, and (2) the Chembur Children's Home, Mankhurd, Greater Bombay. The Byramjee Jeejeebhoy Home is run by the Society for the Protection of Children in Western India. The remaining three, viz., (1) the Yeravda Industrial School, Poona, (2) Sholapur Certified School; and (3) Hubli Certified School are Government Institutions.

Government has also started Certified Schools with agricultural bias at Jambul and Malsiras and Certified Schools for girls at Sirur and Mundhawa in the Poona District. The Certified Schools at Surat and Baroda are also managed by Government. The rest of the Certified Schools i.e. 19 are private institutions, certified for the reception of court-committed children. The David Sassoon Industrial School and the Yeravda Industrial School are walled institutions and are generally used for the children whose liberty needs to be temporarily restricted to enable them to settle down.

In spite of the great progress made since 1923-24, the provision of Certified Schools is still inadequate. What is indicated is the establishment of additional institutions in different parts of the State rather than an increase in the size of the existing schools, some of which are too big already. It is the medium sized Certified School which offers the best scope for individual attention without becoming economically prohibitive.

The need for having specialised institutions for the treatment of different types of children is also being keenly felt. The establishment of a rescue home for the difficult and uncontrollable type of girls, a Certified School for admission of the untainted children of leper parents, Homes for Mentally deficient children, and the construction of infirmaries for the treatment and care of destitute children suffering from T. B. are contemplated. Side by side with these activities, it is also proposed to have suitable classification centres to effect proper commitments and thus to conserve human as well as economic resources.

In addition to the Certified Schools a number of private institutions have been declared as "Fit Person Institutions" for the reception of court-committed children. This has been helpful in minimising congestion in the Certified Schools. There are 105 such institutions in the State.

The non-Government Certified Schools and Fit Person Institutions are given grants-in-aid by Government. In the case of the institutions conducted by the Children's Aid Society, almost the whole expenditure is borne by Government. In the case of other schools and institutions, capita-tion grants are given on account of every court-committed child admitted to the institution at the rate of Rs. 20 per month in Bombay City and at Rs. 18 per month in the mofussil. Besides, medical charges are also paid at Rs. 25 per month per child suffering from T. B. and at Rs. 10 per month per child in other cases.

(7) *After-Care and Release on License*.—The After-Care and follow-up studies of children released from Certified Schools is the third and the final stage in the Children's Act work. It is defined as "that protective attention which should be afforded to young persons, discharged from reformatory institutions, either on license or on expiry of the term of commitment." The purpose of After-Care is to secure rehabilitation in normal life and its importance rests on the fact that upon it largely depends the successful issue of institutional treatment. Release on license is the most effective type of After-Care as it occurs within the period of commitment and provides conditional freedom, within the license terms, and under the guidance of a Probation Officer, as a preparation for the ultimate realisation of complete liberty. During the license period, the

juvenile has to be provided with suitable work and enabled to strike root in ordinary life. Successful license, therefore, largely depends upon the fixing up of remunerative work and regular friendly supervision of the Probation Officer.

After-Care as an essential activity was slow to develop. Prior to 1931, the Yeravda School was the only institution which tried to keep in touch with its ex-pupils. But the work could neither be expanded nor carried out systematically because there was no suitable agency organised for the purpose. In 1931, the Bombay State Probation and After-Care Association was established to maintain supervision over the boys released from the Borstal School, Dharwar. Its constitution was subsequently amended and it was also entrusted with the After-Care and follow-up work under the Children's Act. It received a grant-in-aid from the State Government for this purpose and works through its affiliated bodies—the Regional and District Probation and After-Care Associations.

A good deal of progress has been made in this field, especially since 1938-39. Children are now usually released from Certified Schools even before they attain the age of 18. Normally when two-thirds of their period of detention expires, their cases are placed before the Visiting Committees for consideration for release. Where no Visiting Committees are constituted the Superintendents themselves recommend the release. On a child's release on license, a Probation Officer is appointed to supervise the child and to help him to settle down in life by finding suitable employment, etc. Probation Officers submit Monthly Reports regarding the progress and well-being of the child to the Secretary of the Bombay State Probation and After-Care Association and they are watched very closely by his office.

There are always a number of children in Certified Schools whose parents or guardians are not traced. The number of orphans is also appreciable. Their rehabilitation becomes a difficult task. For the benefit of such children After-Care hostels have been established at five places. The accommodation in these hostels is, however, very limited.

13 (6). *The Borstal School, Dharwar*.—When the Reformatory Schools Act was passed in 1897, a youthful offender was defined as a boy who was below the age of 15 at the time of his conviction. Such youthful offenders could be sent to Reformatory Schools and thus segregated from the adult or hardened criminals. But there was no provision in this Act for the segregation of young offenders between the age of 15 and 21. For this purpose, therefore, a Juvenile Jail was organised in 1915 at Dharwar for the reception of convicts within these age limits, and, it was decided to conduct it as a Borstal Institution which is a sort of half-way house between a Certified School on the one hand and a general jail at the other. Rules for this purpose were framed under the Indian Prisons Act of 1894 and provision was made for the education of the prisoners in the three R's and a few selected industries. In 1929, the Bombay Borstal Schools Act was passed. It was brought into force in 1931 and the Juvenile Jail at Dharwar was converted into a regular Borstal School. It has been functioning as such to this date.

13 (7). *Conclusion.*—The foregoing review of the development of the Children's Act work in the State will show the great progress achieved during the last hundred years. In 1855, there was only one small Industrial School which may be regarded as the fore-runner of the modern Certified Schools and no law except the narrow Apprentice Act to deal with socially handicapped children. Then came the second stage in 1876 when the need to distinguish between adult criminals and youthful offenders was realised and an attempt was made to "educate" the latter in "Reformatories" rather than to "punish" them in "Jails" proper. But the scale of the work was small. It was, moreover, only curative in character and the preventive or protective aspects of the problem had not received any attention at all. And what is worse, the law was applicable to boys only. But with the coming into force of the Bombay Children's Act in 1927 the third stage of this history may be said to have begun. Children's Act work now began to be attempted on modern lines, first in Bombay City and then in other mofussil urban areas. It is being extended even to rural areas on an ever increasing scale. A special Juvenile Branch with trained and whole-time officers has been created. The protective and preventive aspects of the rehabilitation of socially handicapped children are being properly emphasized. Probation Officers have been appointed; Remand Homes, Juvenile Courts, and Certified Schools have been established; due arrangements are made to look after children released on license; and the social conscience has been aroused and educated to do its duty to these children who are the victims of social malaise. The progress already achieved is, therefore, both satisfactory and reassuring although a long journey still awaits us before the care and education of socially handicapped children can be brought on par with the standards already attained in more advanced countries.

B—Education of the Physically Handicapped Children

13 (8). *Education of the Physically Handicapped Children (1885-1937).*—The first school to be established for the education of the physically handicapped children in the State of Bombay was the *Bombay Institution for the Deaf-Mutes* which was established in the City of Bombay in 1885 by the late Bishop Meurin. It was managed by the Roman Catholic Mission and, therefore, the missionaries may be said to have been the pioneers in this field also. This institution began with six pupils in 1885; but its attendance rose to 15 in 1901-02. In 1901-02, it was the only institution for the physically handicapped children in this State.

The drive for educational reconstruction which was organised in the opening year of the present century seems to have been reflected in this field also as the following quotation from the Report of the Educational Inspector, Central Division, will show:—

"During the quinquennium under report 4 schools have been started for the education of the Blind, viz., (1) The American Mission Anglo-Vernacular School for the Blind, Sirur, (2) Miss Millard's School for the Blind, Bombay; (3) Victoria Memorial School for the Blind, Bombay; and (4) the Zenana Mission School for the Blind, Poona; while there was none at the end of 1901-1902. The total attendance in these schools was 102

at the end of 1906-1907. The American Mission Anglo-Vernacular School, Sirur, is the only Secondary School. It is attended by 7 pupils and received a grant of Rs. 150 in 1906-1907. Miss Millard's School and the Victoria Memorial School are attended by 48 and 39 pupils and received grants of Rs. 2,000 and 1,500 respectively. Both the schools are mainly Primary but they teach some English also. The Zenana Mission School for the Blind, Poona, is a purely vernacular school, attended by 8 girls, and received a grant of Rs. 200. The education imparted in these schools is on the Braille system.*"

During the next quinquennium, Prof. Date started a school for the Deaf and the Dumb in the Bombay City and the total number of institutions for the physically handicapped children increased to six in 1911-12. During the next five years, the school at Sirur was closed but a school for the Deaf-Mutes was started at Ahmedabad so that the total number of educational institutions for the physically handicapped children, remained stationary at six. They had a total enrolment of 170 in 1916-17. Their total expenditure came to Rs. 28,906 of which Rs. 5,423 were met from State funds and Rs. 7,600 from Municipal funds.

In 1920, Government appointed a Committee "consisting of educational officers, managers of schools, persons specially qualified to give expert opinion, and representatives of educational and charitable societies interested in the subject of the education of defectives. The committee made various useful recommendations, which were approved generally by Government, who desired that an effort should be made to induce private and public bodies to start schools for defectives on the basis of a grant-in-aid not exceeding two-thirds of the total expenditure or the difference between the total expenditure and the local assets, whichever was less." In 1921-22, the total number of educational institutions for the physically handicapped children was again stationary at six—the School for Deaf-Mutes at Poona having been closed and another of the same type having been opened at Ratnagiri. Their enrolment was 175 and their total expenditure was Rs. 44,403 of which Rs. 17,618 came from State funds.

Under the Dyarchy, only a little progress was recorded in this field, as all attempts at expansion were prevented by the prevailing financial stringency of the period. In 1936-37, there were two schools for the Blind (both in Bombay City) with an enrolment of 109 pupils and five schools for the deaf-mutes (3 in Bombay City, 1 in Poona, and 1 in Ahmedabad) with an enrolment of 183 pupils. The total enrolment thus came to 292 and the total expenditure of all the seven institutions stood at Rs. 47,603 out of which only Rs. 12,769 came from State funds.

13 (9). *Education of the Physically Handicapped Children (1937-55).*—Sympathy for the less fortunate in life is one of the outstanding characteristics of a democratic society and it is, therefore, hardly a matter for surprise if this neglected branch of education received greater attention after the coming into office of a Popular Ministry in 1937. The

* Director of Public Instruction's Report for 1902-03 to 1906-07, p. 67.

following table shows the progressive increase in the number of the educational institutions for the physically handicapped children between 1936-37 and 1954-55:—

TABLE No. 13 (3)

Education of the Physically Handicapped Children (1937-55)

Year.	No. of Institutions.	No. of Pupils.	Expenditure.				
			Government Funds.	D. L. B. or Municipal Funds.	Fees.	Other Sources.	Total Expenditure.
			Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
1936-37	7	292	12,769	3,963	694	30,177	47,603
1941-42	12	398	16,179	4,431	1,228	35,622	57,460
1946-47	11	360	24,349	6,000	3,330	31,569	65,248
1951-52	14	615	1,15,529	10,100	4,728	39,420	1,69,777
1953-54	14	690	1,17,481	12,340	5,400	1,37,693	2,72,914
1954-55	19	872	1,89,831	14,409	5,693	2,02,495	4,12,428

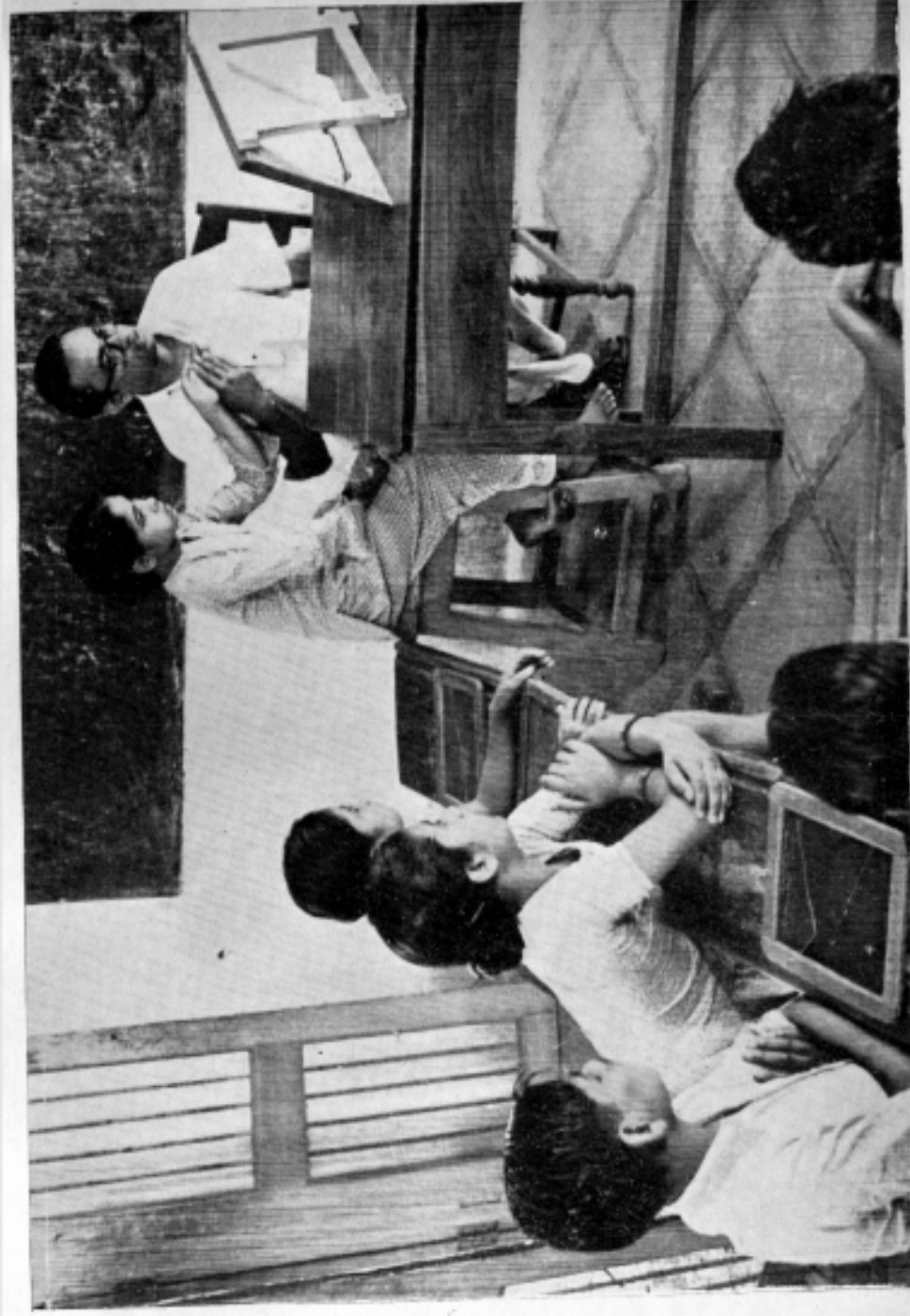
The following table shows the position of each institution for the education of the physically handicapped children as it was on 31st March, 1955:—

TABLE No. 13 (4)
Institutions for Physically Handicapped Children (31-3-1955)

S. No.	Name of the Institute.	Year of Establishment.	No. of Pupils.	Expenditure					Other Sources.	Total.
				Govern-ment Funds.	D. L. B. or Municipal Funds.	Fees.	Rs.	Rs.		
				Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.		Rs.
1.	School for the Deaf and Blind, Mehsana.	1915	52	19,026	19,026
2.	Deaf and Blind School, Baroda	1915	36	14,338	14,338
	Total	...	88	33,364	33,364
	<i>Blind</i>									
3.	Dadar School for the Blind, Bombay 14.	1900	63	17,160	1,000	3,124	21,284	21,284
4.	The Victoria Memorial School for the Blind, Bombay 7.	1902	83	21,960	7,500	1,781	...	26,773	58,014	58,014
5.	The N. S. D. Industrial Home for the Blind, Worli.	1917	138	36,495	1,08,581	1,45,076	1,45,076
6.	Poona School and Home for the Blind.	1934	48	11,200	100	272	...	24,054	35,626	35,626
7.	School for the Blind, Ahmedabad 9.	1945	33	7,990	1,100	1,703	10,793	10,793
8.	The Happy Home for the Blind, Bombay.	1948	41	10,510	734	11,244	11,244
9.	Andha Jana Shikshan Surat.	1954	10	915	915	915
10.	School for the Blind, Hubli	1955	12	1,362	1,362	1,362
	Total	...	428	1,06,677	9,700	2,053	...	1,65,884	2,84,314	2,84,314

TABLE No. 13 (4) Contd.

S. No.	Name of the Institute.	Year of Establi- shment.	No. of Pupils.	Expenditure					Total.
				Govern- ment Funds.	D. L. B. or Municipal Funds.	Fees	Other Sources.		
				Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	
<i>Deaf and Mutes</i>									
11.	Bombay Institute for Deaf and Mutes, Bombay.	1885	99	16,295	...	2,715	19,010
12.	Prof. Date's School for Deaf and Dumb, Bombay.	1907	32	...	1,000	...	5,931	...	6,931
13.	School for Deaf and Mutes, Ahmedabad.	1908	96	27,575	3,050	...	19,633	...	50,258
14.	Gondhalekar's School for Deaf and Mute, Poona.	1924	23	2,146	...	2,146
15.	The Deaf and Dumb School, Sholapur.	1937	16	3,337	...	3,337
16.	The Deaf and Dumb School, Kolhapur.	1942	20	920	309	...	725	...	1,954
17.	The Dumb and Deaf School, Thana.	1948	23	1,070	150	...	660	...	1,880
18.	The Deaf and Mute Classes (Tilak College) Poona.	1953	27	1,050	200	925	1,631	...	3,806
19.	The Deaf and Dumb School, Sholapur.	1953	20	2,880	2,548	...	5,428
Total		...	356	46,790	4,709	3,640	36,611	...	94,750
Grand Total		...	872	1,89,831	14,409	5,693	2,02,495	...	4,12,428





March Past
(By Pupils of an Industrial School)



Physical exercise by blind children

13 (10). *Education of the Mentally Handicapped Children.*—Very little is being done in this State at present for the welfare of the mentally handicapped children. There are only two institutions doing this work and both of them are of recent origin. The first of these is the *Home for Mentally Deficient Children, Mankhurd, Bombay*. This was established in 1941 and it admits only court-committed children. The second institution is the *School for Children in Need of Special Care, Bombay*, established by Shrimati Vakil in 1944. It is an excellent institution which is doing valuable pioneer work in the field.

The following table gives the details of these two institutions as they stood on 31st March, 1955:—

TABLE NO. 13 (5)

Institutions for Mentally Handicapped Children (31-3-1955)

S. No.	Name of the Institute.	Year of Establishment.	No. of Pupils.	Expenditure				
				Govern-ment Funds.	D. L. B. or Municipal Funds.	Fees.	Other Sources.	Total.
				Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
1	Home for Mentally Deficient children, Mankhurd.	1941	97	34,631	450	35,081
2	School for Children in need of Special Care, Bombay.	1944	62	42,195	2,000	7,352	...	51,547
Total ...				76,826	2,000	7,352	450	86,628

13 (11). *Conclusion.*—It will be seen from the above account that the provision for the education of physically and mentally handicapped children is yet in its infancy. There are only 21 institutions working in this field and they provide accommodation for only about 500 pupils. Besides, most of these are located in big cities so that it may be said that no provision of this kind is as yet made for the rural areas. Moreover, there are several districts in the State in which not even one institution for the physically and mentally handicapped children is being maintained at present. Government, therefore, is considering the problem of developing this neglected aspect of education.

With this object in view, the grant-in-aid given to these institutions has been recently increased. Formerly, the schools for physically and mentally handicapped children were paid grants at the rate of (i) 2/3rds of approved expenditure or (ii) Rs. 120 per pupil in average attendance or (iii) the difference between admitted expenditure and local assets, whichever is less. Since 1951-52, these rates have been revised and made more liberal so that these schools now get grants at the rate of (i) 2/3rds of the actual audited expenditure (including the expenditure on hostels, if any) or (ii) Rs. 30 per month per pupil, whichever is less. Secondly, it is proposed to provide for a Special Officer (in Class I), with the necessary

clerical staff, for the inspection of the schools for the physically and mentally handicapped children, to give larger recurring and non-recurring grants to the schools in order to enable them to expand their facilities and to improve their efficiency. It is also proposed to provide for extensions to the existing Government institutions for the handicapped and to award post-school scholarships to enable promising pupils from these institutions to pursue their education beyond the matriculation stage. Progress in this field can only be slow; but it will be seen from the above review that the educational provision for the physically and mentally handicapped children has materially improved since 1937 and that it is proposed to be largely augmented during the next five years.

CHAPTER XIV

EDUCATION OF SPECIAL CLASSES

Apart from the system of general education which was meant for the average child, several attempts were made in this State, during the last 130 years, to educate particular classes of the community. The more important of these *viz.*, the education of women, the education of the backward classes and the education of handicapped children were described in the last three Chapters. It is proposed to deal, in this concluding Chapter on the subject, with the remaining four attempts of the same type, *viz.*,

- (a) Education of Anglo-Indians and Europeans;
- (b) Education of the Ruling Chiefs and the Aristocracy;
- (c) Education of Muslims; and
- (d) Education of the Intermediate Classes.

I. Education of Europeans and Anglo-Indians

14 (2). *The Education of Anglo-Indians and Europeans prior to 1855.*—The European employees of the East India Company generally sent their children home for education. This was indeed a costly process; but most of them were sufficiently well paid to be able to afford the expenditure.

The case of the European children of the poorer families and of all the Anglo-Indian children was, however, entirely different. Some of the European employees received a low remuneration which prevented them from sending their children to schools at home; and there were so many legal, social, and economic difficulties that it was next to impossible to send any Anglo-Indian children to England for their education. Hence it was felt that some provision for the education of these two groups of children should be made in India itself.

The problem was first taken up by the Church on a basis of charity. The Rev. Richard Cobbe, Anglican Chaplain at Bombay, founded a *charity school* in Bombay City as early as in 1718. It was mostly supported by

donations given by the local European community; but the Company also gave it some financial assistance. Till the end of the eighteenth century this institution was the only educational provision made in this State for the poor European and Anglo-Indian children.

In 1815 the Bombay Education Society was founded by the European residents in Bombay City with "the benevolent object of training up the children of their Countrymen in pious attachment to the principles of Christianity, and of implanting in their minds such other knowledge and habits of industry, as might render them useful Members of the Community."* It took over the charity school founded by Rev. Richard Cobbe (the Company agreeing to give it a grant-in-aid of Rs. 300 p.m.) and also established other schools where necessary.

Although the primary object of the Society was to educate European and Anglo-Indian children, it decided to admit Indian children to its schools right from the beginning. Thus started the practice (which continues to this day) of admitting a small percentage of Indian children to the Anglo-Indian and European schools. The schools find it advantageous because the fees paid by Indian children add substantially to their resources; and several Indian parents of the richer classes consider it desirable to educate their children in these schools where English is used as the medium of instruction throughout the school course. During the British rule this practice brought in a certain economic advantage also because the children educated in these institutions obtained a good command over the English language and learnt European manners, which often enabled them to secure a good job under Government. Although this advantage has since disappeared, the old tradition still survives to some extent.

Till 1822 the Bombay Education Society tried to spread education among Indian children also, but it soon discovered that this was too big a task for its resources. Accordingly a separate Society called "The Bombay Native Education Society" was established in 1822 and was entrusted with the task of educating Indian children; and thereafter the Bombay Education Society restricted its activities exclusively to the problem of educating European and Anglo-Indian children.

Until 1855 this Society was the main agency in this State for the education of European and Anglo-Indian children. In the early years it started schools in Bombay City, Thana, Surat, Broach and some other places where the regiments of the Army were stationed. But later on, it concentrated its activities in maintaining two institutions—one for boys and the other for girls—at Byculla. In 1856-57 it was reported that the boys' school had 139 pupils and the girls' school had 164 pupils on their registers.

The schools of the Bombay Education Society catered for the Anglican children. Consequently, the other churches also started schools for European and Anglo-Indian children belonging to their denomination. For example, the Scottish Church established an Orphanage for girls at Mahalaxmi in 1848 and the Roman Catholic Church also established an Orphanage for boys at Byculla and another for girls at Mazgaon.

* First Annual Report of the Bombay Education Society, pp. 13-14.

Even in this early period Government used to give an allowance of Rs. 5 p.m. in respect of the orphans of children admitted to these schools.* This was, of course, in addition to the block grants for maintenance which were sanctioned to the schools themselves.

14 (3). *The Education of Anglo-Indian and European Children (1855-1902).*—Soon after the creation of the Department, the education of Anglo-Indian and European children received the attention of Government and Lord Canning wrote his well-known Minute on the subject (1861) in the course of which he said:—

“If measures for educating these children are not promptly and vigorously encouraged and aided by the Government, we shall soon find ourselves embarrassed in all large towns and stations with a floating population of Indianised English, loosely brought up and exhibiting most of the worst qualities of both races; whilst the Eurasian population, already so numerous that the means of education offered to it are quite inadequate, will increase more rapidly than ever. I can hardly imagine a more profitless, unmanageable community than one so composed. It might be long before it would grow to what would be called a class dangerous to the State; but very few years will make it, if neglected, a glaring reproach to the Government and to the faith which it will, however ignorant and vicious, nominally profess. On the other hand, if cared for betimes, it will become a source of strength to British rule and usefulness to India..... The Eurasian class have an especial claim upon us. The presence of a British Government has called them into being; they serve the Government in many respects more efficiently than the natives can as yet serve it and more cheaply and conveniently than Europeans can do so.”†

Very little progress was, however, actually achieved during the next ten years. In 1871, therefore, a Commission was appointed to enquire into the education of European and Anglo-Indian children. It reported that the existing provision in this respect was far from adequate and that the recommendations of Canning had been mostly overlooked. The subject was, therefore, taken up again by Lord Lytton who wrote the second famous Minute on the subject in 1879. He referred the matter to a Committee whose labour ultimately resulted in the appointment of another committee which drew up the Bengal Code for European Schools. This important document was published under the orders of the Government of India in 1883 and although it was originally meant for Bengal alone, it influenced the legislation on the subject throughout the country and the Codes of other States were suitably modified in accordance with its principles.

Between 1855 and 1902, therefore, the subject of European and Anglo-Indian education received greater attention from all State Governments. Besides, an important movement for the establishment of such schools in hill-stations in order to remove the children from “the debilitating influences of a tropical climate” was also started and largely developed

* This was reduced to Rs. 2-8-0 p. m. in the case of half-orphans. This system of allowances continues to this day under the name of “destitute grants.”

† Progress of Education in India, 1882-87, p. 294.

during this period. From 1889-90, the Government of India also began to call for special annual statistics from State Governments regarding the schools for European and Anglo-Indian children. For all these reasons the education of Europeans and Anglo-Indians made considerable progress during this period in all parts of India. Bombay, which has a fairly large European and Anglo-Indian population, was no exception to this general development. In 1901-02, it had 46 schools for European and Anglo-Indian children with a total enrolment of 3,814. Their total expenditure came to Rs. 3,60,952 out of which Rs. 1,14,658 came from fees, Rs. 1,50,521 from other sources and Rs. 95,773 from Government funds.

14. (4) *The Education of Anglo-Indian and European Children (1902-47).*—Lord Curzon's drive for educational reconstruction laid special emphasis on proper attention being given to the education of European and Anglo-Indian children. Consequently, a good deal of progress was made in this field between 1901-02 and 1921-22. In Bombay a special post of an Inspector for European and Anglo-Indian schools was created in the quinquennium, 1902-07. Similarly, larger recurring and non-recurring grants began to be paid to these schools on a more liberal basis than in the past. Arrangements for the training of teachers of these schools were also made and some of the existing institutions were consolidated into larger and more efficient units. In 1921-22, therefore, the total number of schools for the European and Anglo-Indian children in the State came down to 40 but their enrolment rose to 4,589 and their general efficiency was largely improved. Their total expenditure had now increased to Rs. 8,47,565 out of which Rs. 2,91,131 came from fees Rs. 2,56,529 came from other sources and Rs. 2,99,905 from Government funds.

In 1921, Education was transferred to Indian control; but the subject of European and Anglo-Indian education was reserved with the Governor. Consequently, the financial stringency of this period was not reflected in this field. A State Board for Anglo-Indian and European Education was created in 1934 to advise Government on matters relating to this subject and it served a useful purpose in consolidating the ground already gained between 1921 and 1937. Therefore the education of European and Anglo-Indian children continued to progress on the lines laid down during the earlier period. In 1936-37, the number of schools fell to 29 but their enrolment had increased to 5,119. The total expenditure of these schools showed a small decrease and stood at Rs. 8,40,683 in 1936-37, but the Government grants had increased from Rs. 2,99,905 in 1921-22 to Rs. 3,22,042 in 1936-37.*

With the introduction of Provincial Autonomy in 1937, it was found necessary to transfer the education of European and Anglo-Indian children also to Indian control. Hence certain statutory guarantees were given to the European and Anglo-Indian Communities in order to allay their fears that their education might be adversely affected by this transfer. The principle guarantee was that a sum which is not less than the expenditure incurred on the subject in the pre-transfer years would be annually

* The figures for 1936-37 exclude the statistics for Sind and if allowance is made for these, this period really shows a much greater progress.

provided in the budget for payments of grants-in-aid to European and Anglo-Indian schools. The actual history of this period, however, showed that the fears entertained at the time of the transfer of this subject to Indian control were entirely groundless, and that the education of European and Anglo-Indian children showed considerable progress even in this short period of ten years. In 1946-47, the number of the special schools for these Communities had increased to 31 with an enrolment of 6,132. Their total expenditure also had increased to Rs. 14,32,783 of which Rs. 3,83,303 came from Government funds.

An important development of this period, however, was the abolition of the special post of the Inspector for European and Anglo-Indian Schools in 1945-46. From this year, the Educational Inspector, Bombay, was also designated as the Inspector for European and Anglo-Indian Schools and had to do the duties of the post in addition to his own. This reform has not had any adverse effect on European and Anglo-Indian education. But it has resulted in considerable economy to the State.*

Another important development of this period was the appointment of a special Committee under the Chairman of Mr. J. B. Greaves to consider the question of grants-in-aid to European and Anglo-Indian schools. The main changes recommended by the Committee and accepted by Government were the following:—

(1) A fixed amount of Rs. 2,50,000 should be earmarked for the distribution of ordinary maintenance grants to the European and Anglo-Indian schools. The grant-in-aid to each individual school was to be calculated in accordance with a special formula prepared by the Committee;

(2) An amount of Rs. 1,72,000 should be earmarked for the payment of "destitute grants" to deserving European and Anglo-Indian children; and

(3) Payment of building grants to European and Anglo-Indian schools should be discontinued.

Even to-day the grants to Anglo-Indian schools continue to be paid on these and other principles recommended by the Greaves Committee.

14 (5) *The Education of Anglo-Indian Children (1947-55).*—The Constitution of India which is based on the principles of social justice and equality is averse to recognising any privileges for the more advanced sections of society. It was, therefore, not possible to continue indefinitely the privileges which the European and Anglo-Indian Communities had enjoyed in the past. In so far as Europeans are concerned, they now became "aliens" instead of "citizens" and hence the question of giving them privileges did not arise. But the problem of the Anglo-Indian Community had to be dealt with differently. It was, therefore, decided, in view of the long period during which this Community had enjoyed the privileges that they should be continued for a period of

* As a result of this arrangement, half the expenditure incurred on account of the Educational Inspector, Bombay, used to be debited to the "Inspectorate for European and Anglo-Indian Schools." But even this practice has been discontinued since 1954-55.

three years in the first instance and that they should then be reduced successively thereafter and eliminated *in toto* at the end of ten years. For convenience of reference, Article 337 of the Constitution which deals with the subject is quoted below:—

"During the first three financial years after the commencement of this Constitution, the same grants, if any, shall be made by the Union and by each State specified in Part A or Part B of the First Schedule for the benefit of the Anglo-Indian Community in respect of education as were made in the financial year ending on the thirty-first day of March, 1948.

During every succeeding period of three years the grants may be less by ten per cent, than those immediately preceding period of three years.

Provided that at the end of ten years from the commencement of this Constitution such grants, to the extent to which they are a special concession to the Anglo-Indian Community shall cease.

Provided further that no educational institution shall be entitled to receive any grant under this article unless at least forty per cent. of the annual admissions therein are made available to members of Communities other than the Anglo-Indian Community."

During the last five years, therefore, Government has been taking steps to eliminate some of the special privileges which were accorded to this Community in the past. The post of the Special Inspector for Anglo-Indian and European Schools has been abolished and the Educational Inspector, Bombay, has been designated as "Inspector for Anglo-Indian Schools" for administrative purposes only and the Educational Inspectors of the districts concerned and the Inspectresses of Girls' Schools have been authorized to inspect the Anglo-Indian schools in their respective jurisdictions along with the other secondary and primary schools. Secondly, the statutory budget provision of the grants to Anglo-Indian schools was reduced by 10 per cent. in 1953-54 and it is proposed to reduce it by a further 10 per cent. in 1956-57. But the State Board for Anglo-Indian Education is still continued and the Anglo-Indian schools still have their separate syllabus and separate Grant-in-Aid Code. The declared policy of Government is to go slow in this matter and to bring about the necessary changes, as far as possible, with the consent of the communities concerned. It is expected that the Anglo-Indian Community would soon fall in line with the new democratic set up created by the Constitution and gladly agree to work under the common law applicable to all the schools of the State.

II. Education of the Chiefs and the Aristocracy

14 (6) *Education of the Chiefs and Nobles.*—Chronologically, the second special class that was selected for special treatment was that of the rulers of the Indian States and the landed aristocracy. The reasons that led to this decision were varied. Firstly, the British administrators of the early nineteenth century who were called upon to devise an educational system for India were influenced by the *Downward Filtration Theory* which then dominated the theories of social reconstruction. According to this doctrine,

culture always filtered down from the higher to the lower classes so that the education of the higher classes always had a priority in educational programmes.* Secondly, there was also a feeling that properly educated rulers of Indian States would improve the tone of their administration and that the British Government owed it as a duty to the people to arrange for the good education of the future heirs of the Indian States. Thirdly, it was also felt that a properly educated body of rulers and aristocracy would be more loyal to Government and assist in the consolidation of the empire. It is, therefore, no wonder if the efforts to educate the chiefs and nobles were accorded priority and taken up earnestly in the early days of educational development.

In so far as the Bombay State is concerned, the oldest institution of this type was the Sardar's High School, Belgaum. This was first organised by the Political Department and its expenses were met from the contributions given by the rulers of the Deccan States for the purpose. As its name suggests, it was originally meant to be an exclusive institution for the children of the Sardars or Jahagirdars. But as these children were never sent up, admissions began to be given to the nominees of the Sardars.† But even this concession could not save the institution. It was, therefore, transferred to the Education Department in 1858-59. In the course of a few years, it was converted into a regular Government high school, the contributions of the rulers were discontinued and the admissions to the School were thrown open to all classes. To-day, it is only the name of the school—it has been retained even to this date—which reminds one of the original object which was never realised.

*For instance, the Court of Directors wrote as follows to the Madras Government as early as in 1830: "The improvements in education, however, which most effectually contribute to elevate the moral and intellectual condition of a people are those which concern the education of the higher classes, of the persons possessing leisure and natural influence over the minds of their countrymen. By raising the standard of instruction among those classes you would eventually produce a much greater and more beneficial change in the ideas and feelings of the community than you can hope to produce by acting directly on the more numerous class" (Selections from Educational Records, Vol. I, page 179). And even as late as in 1858, Lord Ellenborough, the Secretary of State for India, wrote: "Education and civilisation may descend from the higher to the inferior classes, and so communicated may impart new vigour to the community, but they will never ascend from the lower classes to those above them; they can only, if imparted solely to the lower classes, lead to general convulsion, of which foreigners would be the first victims. If we desire to diffuse education, let us endeavour to give it to the higher classes first"—Report of the Director of Public Instruction, Bombay, 1857-58, pp. 10-11.

† Howard wrote as follows about this school: "That the wealthy absent themselves from our colleges is a great evil for them, and probably an evil for the State; but the remedy suggested by Lord Ellenborough of founding Colleges to which the 'higher classes' alone should be admitted, would, I apprehend, be quite nugatory. The Jagheerdars' College" at Belgaum was opened with this view; but, as no Jagheerdar ever went to it, it was soon turned into a large charity school, to which the Jagheerdars present their nominees,—a descent from the *status* of All-Souls College to that of a Blue-Coat School.....In the civilised world it is the pride of the noble and the wealthy to be highly educated; in Asia it is their privilege to be ignorant. Education has always in India been the special property of a class midway between the aristocracies, trading and landed, and those who labour with their hands. The Government system has not, to any considerable extent, modified this state of things, and exhibits, as yet, no appreciable tendency to do so."—Report of the Director of Public Instruction, Bombay, 1857-58, pp. 28-30.

In spite of this failure similar attempts to educate the aristocracy continued to be made for a very long time and in all parts of the State. It was generally found that these higher classes were unwilling to send their children to the common schools. At the same time the anxiety of Government to educate them was very keen and persistent. The Downward Filtration Theory died hard. It was not officially repudiated till 1882; and it can be said to have ceased to dominate official policies only in the early years of the present century when Curzon declared that the interests of the Indian peasant should be the primary concern of Government. Consequently, special schools for the higher classes continued to be organised, in varying numbers, right till 1921-22.* Some of them were started by the Political Department and later on transferred to the Education Department. Some were started by the Education Department itself. Some others were started by the rulers of Indian States and were subject only to the inspection of the Department. They were known by various names—Sardars' Schools; Jahagirdars' Schools; Talukdari Schools, Girasia Schools, etc. Most of them were day schools but some had hostels attached to them. As a rule, they were exclusive institutions which did not admit any but the pupils of the class for whom they were meant. It is unnecessary to describe, in this brief Review, the detailed history of these institutions. Some of them were temporary in character. They were organised to meet a certain local demand and were closed as soon as it was fully met. Others ceased to exist because they showed but poor results; and some were converted into schools of the ordinary type. It would, therefore, be enough to state that the fond hopes cherished by the early organisers of these schools were never realised. They neither created an educated aristocracy that would serve as a cultural beacon to the people, nor did they develop as the "public schools" of India.

In so far as the rulers of the Indian States are concerned, the problem was a little different. It is true that the opposition to send their children to the common school or to any school whatsoever was much stronger here than in the aristocracy. But there were some saving features as well. Firstly, the cost of the school was hardly any consideration. Secondly, the desire of Government to educate them was stronger and what is more important, the Political Department had, in the last resort, the authority to force education on the rulers through its "advice". Consequently, some special colleges for the children of the rulers were organised in India and successfully maintained. Of these, the Rajkumar College at Rajkot was under the control of the Bombay Education Department from its establishment in 1870-71 to 1921-22 when, as a result of the introduction of Dyarchy, the State Government was entirely dissociated from all matters pertaining to the Indian States. Although the institution is not located in Bombay State, its long association with the Education Department of this State necessitates a brief reference to its history in the course of this Review.

How the College was established in the teeth of opposition from the rulers and what a Herculean task it was to persuade them to send their

*A special Section or Chapter in the Report of the Director of Education used to be devoted to the "Education of Chiefs and Nobles." This practice was discontinued only after 1921-22.

scions to the institution can be guessed from the following account of its establishment given by Peile:—

"I have also to record the successful opening of the Rajkumar College at Rajkot, for the education of the young Chiefs of the great tributary peninsula of Kathiawad. It would be equally unwise, and unjust to those who have undertaken the anxious responsibilities of this experiment, to speak of this College as a spontaneous offering of the Kathiawad Chiefs. Many traditional prejudices must have been surrendered, and many ancestral habitudes broken through, when the Durbars consented to build this College and send their sons to be its inhabitants. Probably the reliance of the Kathiawad Chiefs on the general good faith and beneficent purpose of the dominant power could not have been subjected to any severer ordeal, but a trustful and cheerful response was made to the great interest expressed in this undertaking by the highest authorities in these territories."*

But once having been started, the College made fair progress. In 1881-82, the Principal reported that the number of students had decreased to 34 and added:—

"A college such as this, where the question of quantity is subordinate to that of a limited quality is necessarily subject to fluctuations. At the time when this college was first opened, the supply of young Chiefs under Government tutelage was unusually large. Having educated the first generation of minors, we must necessarily wait some time for their sons."†

The expected improvement did come, especially when the generation which had passed through the College began to come of age and the College showed definite signs of progress in the present century. The following is the last notice of the institution which appears in the Quinquennial Report for 1921-22:—

"In this Presidency there is only one Chiefs' College, the Rajkumar College at Rajkot in Kathiawar. Its administration is in the hands of a Committee composed of certain Political Officers and Chiefs, with the Governor of Bombay as President. Its ultimate control rests with the Foreign Department of the Government of India. The Principal and Vice-Principal are lent officers of the I.E.S. The College had 53 pupils against 33 in 1916-17, drawn from various States, 44 being from the Kathiawar Estates and Talukas and the remainder from other Agencies in Gujarat. The College teaches a special curriculum providing a course of 7 years leading up to the Diploma examination of the College. A stray student occasionally prepares for the School-Leaving Examination of the Bombay University after passing the Diploma examination. It is interesting to note that about 70 per cent of the Kumars are sons of old boys, who are sending their sons at an increasingly early age and in increasing numbers. The total expenditure on the institution was Rs. 31,661, of which Rs. 54,400 was met from fees, Rs. 24,966

* Report of the Director of Public Instruction, Bombay, 1870-71, p. 113.

† Ibid, 1881-82, p. 91.

from Provincial Revenues, and Rs. 2,295 from subscription. The average annual cost of educating a pupil was Rs. 1,667."*

It may be pointed out in passing that this institution was not a "college" in the usual sense of the word, although it has been always designated as such. Its main feature was that it provided almost individual instruction, suited to the needs of the princely order, to every student and was not hide-bound by any rigid system of examinations. It would, however, be more appropriate to describe it as one of the most exclusive and costliest public schools of the State.

14 (7). *Public Schools*.—Although the attempt to create a type of public schools for the chiefs and nobles of the country thus failed in its objective (except to a limited extent in the case of the Rajkumar College), some other public schools modelled on those of England have been successfully established in India. These are: (1) King George's School, Belgaum, which is conducted by the Government of India for the children of defence personnel; (2) Hansraj Morarji Public School, Andheri, which is conducted by a public trust specially created for the purpose; and (3) Shri Shivaji Preparatory School, Poona, which was established as a part of the memorial erected to the memory of Shivaji, the Great. The last two institutions are availed of by the well-to-do classes who appreciate the public school type of education.

Besides these institutions which are "public schools" in the sense that they are either Members or Associate Members of the Indian Public Schools Conference, there are several schools, partly or wholly residential, which function almost like "public schools" although they are not called as such. But their number is so small that they do not have sufficient significance in the general system of education.

Recently, the Government of India, in collaboration with some State Governments and some of the public schools themselves, have organised a scheme of merit scholarships which are awarded to deserving but poor students admitted to the public schools, a certain percentage of these scholarships being reserved for children of the backward classes. This scheme, object of which is to democratise the public schools in the country to some extent, is being availed of by the public schools in this State also.

III Education of Muslims

14. (8). *Early Muslim Education (1818-71)*.—The early enquiries into indigenous education made in this State showed a comparatively favourable position of Muslim education. There were several higher schools of learning in which Arabic and Persian were studied. Among these, special mention must be made of a college for Boharas at Surat which was attended by 125 scholars who came from all parts of India and which was maintained privately at a cost of about Rs. 32,000. There were a number of special elementary schools for Muslims in which Persian and some Arabic was taught and, in addition, Muslim boys took advantage of the Hindu schools of their localities. There is a specific reference to Muslim girls being educated at home. The duration of school life was longer in the case of Muslim schools and the course of instruction also was richer

* Report of the Director of Public Instruction, Bombay, 1921-22, p. 104.

except in arithmetic. In the Konkan and Gujarat, the percentage of Muslim children under instruction was higher than that of the Hindus, although the opposite conditions prevailed in the Southern and Central up-ghat parts of the State. On the whole, therefore, there is every reason to believe that, at the advent of the British rule, the education of the Muslims was not inferior to that of the Hindus and it was probably even superior.*

But this initial advantage was apparently lost between 1818 and 1870. During this time, the Hindus—and especially the advanced communities among the Hindus—came forward enthusiastically to take advantage of the new system of education which was slowly growing up under the combined influence of Government and missionary enterprise. But for several reasons, the Muslims generally maintained a sullen aloofness from the modern schools, particularly those at the secondary and collegiate level, so that their education fell far short of the standard attained by the Hindus.†

What were the causes which were responsible for this backwardness of Muslims in education? It was a very controversial and frequently discussed subject in the middle of the last century and by far the best summary of the common views held in this respect is given by the Indian Education Commission which writes:—

“What the causes were which deterred the Muhammadans from such cultivation was debated even among themselves. While some held that the absence of instruction in the tenets of their faith, and still more the injurious effects of English education in creating a disbelief in religion, were the main obstacles, others, though a small minority, were of opinion that religion had little to do with the question. Some contended that the system of education prevailing in Government schools and colleges corrupted the morals and manners of the pupils, and that for this reason the better classes would not subject their sons to dangerous contact. The small proportion of Muhammadan teachers in Government institutions; the unwillingness of Government educational officers to accept the counsel and co-operation of Muhammadans; numerous minor faults in the Departmental system; the comparatively small progress in real learning made by the pupils in Government schools; the practice among the well-to-do Muhammadans of educating their children at home; the indolence and improvidence too common among them; their hereditary love of the profession of arms; the absence of friendly intercourse between Muhammadans and Englishmen; the unwillingness felt by the better born to associate with those lower in the social scale; the poverty nearly general among Muhammadans; the coldness of Government towards the race; the use in Government schools of books whose tone was hostile or

* For details, vide R. V. Parulekar, : A Survey of Indigenous Education in the State of Bombay.

† It must be remembered that several sections of the Hindu community were far worse off in their education than the Muslims. But the Muslim community was never compared with the backward classes. Very often, they were not compared even with the Hindus as a whole. The most usual comparison made was between Muslims and the advanced communities among the Hindus, Parsees, Christians and Anglo-Indians. This is obviously incorrect. But that was the fashion and it heightened the effect of Muslim backwardness.

scornful towards the Muhammadan religion;—these and a variety of other causes have been put forward at different times by members of the Muhammadan community to account for the scant appreciation which an English education has received at their hands. All such causes may have combined towards a general result, but a candid Muhammadan would probably admit that the most powerful factors are to be found in pride of race, a memory of bygone superiority, religious fears, and a not unnatural attachment to the learning of Islam. But whatever the causes, the fact remained.”*

A close analysis of the educational statistics of the State for 1871-72 will show the extent and nature of Muslim backwardness in education more precisely. In 1872, the Muslims formed 15.4 per cent. of the total population, but their enrolment in recognised schools was only 8.2 per cent. This shows considerable overall backwardness no doubt. But it has to be remembered that this backwardness was mostly restricted to Sind where the Muslims formed more than 80 per cent. of the population while their enrolment in recognised schools was only 32 per cent. Secondly, it has also to be remembered that a very large proportion of Muslim children attended the unrecognised institutions (like the Mulla Schools of Sind, or the *Maktabas* where the Koran was taught) so that their smaller enrolment in recognised schools exaggerates the extent of their backwardness. If all the institutions—recognised and un-recognised—are taken together and Sind is excluded, it is seen that Muslims were not more backward in education than the Hindus, except at the secondary and collegiate level. “Here” wrote the Director of Education, “is the weak point. The Muhammadans avail themselves of our lower schools, but do not rise to the higher schools and colleges.”†

14 (9). *Muslim Education (1871-1921)*.—The Government of India instituted an inquiry into Muslim education in 1870. The results of this investigation showed that the Muslims were generally backward in education in all parts of the country and that some special measures were necessary to spread education in their midst. Accordingly, the Government of India directed the State Government to take some special measures to encourage the education of Muslims and suggested that (a) further encouragement should be given to Arabic, Persian and Urdu in all Government schools and colleges; (b) that in English schools established in localities where Muslims predominate qualified Muslim teachers might be employed with advantage; and (c) that encouragement should be given to private Muslim enterprise in education and to the promotion of Urdu literature.‡ Chronologically, therefore, it may be said that the Muslims were the third special class which the British administration had singled out for patronage and that these orders of 1871 mark the beginning of a special treatment which Muslims were given continuously till 1947.

* Report of the Indian Education Commission, p. 483.

† Ibid, p. 487.

‡ Ibid, p. 484.

During the next fifty years of Departmental administration continuous and increasingly intensive efforts were made to give special encouragement to Muslims. A professor of Arabic and Persian was appointed in the Elphinstone College, and Persian teachers were also appointed in the Elphinstone and Surat High Schools. A number of stipends were sanctioned for Muslim teachers in training institutions in order to secure an adequate supply of qualified teachers to work in Muslim schools. A large number of separate primary schools for Muslims were also opened out of the proceeds of local fund cess and when the number of separate Muslim schools had considerably increased special Muslim Deputy Inspectors were appointed to inspect them.

The result of these measures was very encouraging. In 1881-82 the percentage of Muslim children in schools to total number of scholars enrolled increased to 14.7 per cent. It is true that the backwardness of Muslims at the secondary and collegiate stage was still very noticeable. But most of the ground at the primary level had been covered.

Attempts on the above lines were continued during the following two decades. In 1901-02, therefore, the education of Muslims presented a much better picture. According to the Census of 1901-02, the Muslims formed 17.9 per cent. of the total population. The enrolment of Muslim children in recognised schools alone rose to 17.6 per cent. and if the unrecognised institutions were taken into consideration, it stood at 20.6 per cent. The percentage of Muslim children at school to the total number of Muslim children of school-going age was 19.7, while the similar percentage for all communities put together was 16.1 only. In other words, the Muslim community as a whole had ceased to be a backward community in education at the turn of the nineteenth century.*

In the first two decades of the present century, still further attempts were made to give special encouragement to the education of Muslims. The general methods adopted were (1) exemption from fees, (2) award of scholarships and reservation of seats in Government educational institutions, (3) provision of hostels to meet the needs of rural Muslims, (4) training of Muslim teachers, (5) appointment of special Muslim Inspectors, (6) appointment of Muslims on the staff of ordinary schools, (7) permission to give religious instruction in schools, and (8) special encouragement to private Muslim enterprise which was now coming forward to some extent.

* At the secondary and collegiate levels, however, the Muslims were still showing backwardness although the position had improved to some extent since 1881-82. Compare the following statistics:—

	No. of Students in Colleges.		No. of Students in Secondary Schools.
	Arts.	Professional.	
(1) All Communities ...	1,941	1,064	48,533
(2) Muslims ...	67	38	2,840
Percentage of (2) to (1) ...	3.4	3.8	5.8

In the education of girls, *purdah* and popular prejudices had resulted in a very noticeable backwardness.

It was also during this period that separate institutions for Muslims were organised on a much larger scale than in the past. It is true that a large percentage of Muslim pupils attended the ordinary schools because separate institutions were not available in the locality. But the Muslim community as a whole was not satisfied with this arrangement for several reasons such as (1) absence of religious education, (2) non-observance of Muslim holidays and festivals, (3) non-use of Urdu as a medium of instruction and not infrequently even the failure to teach it as a subject, (4) absence of adequate facilities for cultural studies in Persian or Arabic, (5) absence of Muslims on the staff and the alleged complaint that the interests of Muslim students were not properly looked after by non-Muslim teachers or managers. Consequently, there was a growing demand from the Muslims for the organisation of separate schools for their children, and the Department tried to meet this as far as possible.

A development which accompanied this increased establishment of separate schools, and which was both its cause and result, was the increasing desire to learn Urdu which the Muslims began to display during this period. In the nineteenth century, this desire was more or less latent and a very large percentage of Muslims chose to study in the local schools through the language of the region. But with the growth of political consciousness, the desire to learn Urdu also began to increase. The Muslims now demanded either special schools teaching through the medium of Urdu or separate schools where Urdu was taught as an additional subject. In order to meet these demands, the Department organised two types of courses for the Muslim schools in 1918 in addition to the course in which Urdu alone was taught. In the first, Urdu was used as a medium of instruction and the regional language was taught as a subject while in the second, the regional language was used as a medium of instruction and Urdu was taught as a subject. It was left to the local community to decide as to which of these two courses it would adopt in the local school.

A brief account of the position of Muslim education in 1921-22 will show the ground which the community had covered between 1871 and 1921, the nature of the special privileges given to it, and also the extent and character of the backwardness that was still left. The Muslim population of the State was 19.7 per cent. (1921 Census) and the total number of Muslim children under instruction in all institutions was 1,81,417 or 18.9 per cent. This slight backwardness was again due to Sind where the Muslims formed 73 per cent. of the population but where the Muslim pupils were only 49 per cent. of the total enrolment in educational institutions. In the State proper, however, the Muslims showed a much

better progress than the average for all the communities combined, as the following table will show:—

TABLE NO. 14 (1)
Education of Muslims (1921-22)

Division.	Number of Muslim Pupils.	Percentage of Muslim Pupils to Total of Pupils of all Classes in Public Institutions.	Percentage of Muslim Population to Total Population.
Bombay Division	28,365	14.5	8.3
Central Division	26,114	10.5	6.1
Northern Division	23,477	14.1	10.8
Southern Division	22,789	14.7	10.8

In primary schools, liberal concessions were given to Muslim children, the general policy being that no child should be kept away from school because of inability to pay fees. In the Government secondary schools, liberal free-studentships (i.e., one-third of the total available) were allowed and, not too infrequently, there were not sufficient applicants to claim the exemptions. Fees were also exempted to deserving Muslim students reading in Government colleges.

A fairly large number of scholarships were reserved for Muslims at all levels* and in the hostels attached to Government colleges and secondary schools, separate arrangements were made for Muslims whenever they were justified by numbers. Hostels were also attached to some central Urdu schools.

A post of a Deputy Educational Inspector for Muslim Education was created in each division in addition to the Muslims employed on the ordinary inspecting staff of the Department. Besides, there was a large Inspecting staff for Muslim schools in Sind. Every opportunity was also taken to recruit suitable Muslims for the teaching and the Inspecting sections of the Department.†

In the State proper, there were six secondary schools teaching through the medium of Urdu. Two of these—the Anglo-Urdu High Schools at Poona and Hubli—were maintained by Government and others by private enterprise.

For the training of Muslim teachers for special primary schools, three Urdu training classes were attached to Government primary training colleges and it was proposed to develop them, as soon as possible, into separate training colleges.

In addition to the measures already described, encouragement was also given in the following ways: (1) special grants for *Makhtabs*; (2) rewards for the encouragement of Urdu literature; (3) a special Muslim

* Report of the Director of Public Instruction, Bombay, 1921-22, p. 114.

† For details regarding the post of the Urdu Inspectresses of Girls' Schools, see Chapter XI.

allowance of Rs. 5 per head for qualified Urdu teachers in receipt of pay less than Rs. 20 per mensem; (4) special grants for the award of scholarships, books, clothes, etc., to deserving Muslim girls in primary schools; (5) the appointment of an Urdu Text-Books Committee; (6) the appointment of an Urdu Translation Board to compile and translate Urdu books for primary schools; (7) employment of Urdu teachers in addition to Persian teachers in eight high schools; and (8) opening of Central Schools with stipends attached to them for preparing students for the P.S.C. Examination in order to secure a supply of qualified teachers.

An analysis of the statistics of Muslim pupils at the different stages of education showed that in spite of all this encouragement, the Muslims were still backward at the secondary and collegiate level, although they evinced very good progress at the primary stage. The probable reasons for this were the small number of secondary schools teaching through the medium of Urdu, the difficulties caused by the learning of two languages, general poverty, and the absence of large-scale private enterprise.

Another area of backwardness was the education of girls. Although the number of Muslim girls attending primary schools was fairly large, the disproportion between the enrolment of Muslim girls and those of the other communities increased very greatly in the secondary and collegiate stages. Similarly, the supply of qualified Muslim women teachers was also extremely limited.

14 (10). *Education of Muslims (1921-55)*.—Under the dyarchical system of administration, the concessions given to the Muslims during the earlier period were continued and even increased. It was at this period that the Hindus came to be divided into three sections—Advanced, Intermediate and Backward. Even as early as 1926-27 it was reported that although the Muslims “have considerable lee-way to make before they can come into line with the Advanced Hindus”, they are decidedly in advance of the Intermediate and Backward Hindus.* But the privileges granted to the Muslims were considerably more than those given to the Intermediate or even Backward Classes. For instance, whereas one set of scholarships in secondary schools was provided for about 15,000 of the Muslim population, the corresponding figures for the Intermediate and Backward Hindus were 50,000 and 40,000 respectively.† As may naturally be expected, this liberal encouragement led to rapid progress and the Muslims in Bombay State were found to be in advance of those in other Indian States.‡

The principal events of the period in this field were the following:—

(a) The opening of the Ismail Yusuf College, Andheri, in 1930. This institution was open to all communities, but gave preference to Muslim students and laid stress on those branches of learning which are predominantly Muslim—the study of classical Arabic and Persian and of Islamic history and culture.

* Report of the Director of Public Instruction, Bombay, 1922-27, p. 166.

† Ibid, p. 169.

‡ Ibid, p. 166.

(b) Increase in Government and other scholarships at the collegiate and secondary stages.

(c) Construction of a building and hostel for the Anglo-Urdu High School, Poona, and the establishment of Government Anglo-Urdu Middle Schools at Nasik and Sholapur.

(d) Opening of an Anglo-Urdu Girls' School at Poona in 1929-30.

(e) Establishment of Urdu Training Schools for Men at Poona and Ahmedabad and of a Urdu Training College for Women at Poona.

As a result of all these reforms and encouragement, Muslim education showed great improvement by 1936-37 and the picture was made better still by the separation of Sind. The net result is seen in the following table:—

TABLE No. 14 (2)
Education of Muslims (1936-37)

Race or creed.		Popula- tion (Census of 1931).	Percentage of Popula- tion to Total Population.	Number of Pupils under instruc- tion.	Percentage of Pupils to Total Number of Pupils.	Perce- ntage of Pupils to Popula- tion.
1		2	3	4	5	6
Hindus	Advanced	1,313,744	7.3	289,247	21.7	22.0
	Intermediate	10,536,967	58.8	610,834	45.7	5.8
	Backward	3,752,221	21.0	147,291	11.0	3.9
	Total	15,602,932	87.1	1,047,372	78.4	6.7
Muslims		1,583,259	8.8	183,036	13.7	11.6
Zorostrians		85,662	0.5	18,196	1.4	21.2
Indian Christians		267,460	1.5	42,128	3.1	15.8
Others		377,005	2.1	45,157	3.4	12.0
Grand Total		17,916,318	100.0	1,335,889	100.0	7.5

(Taken from page 209 of the Report of the Director of Public Instruction, Bombay, 1936-37).

It would be easily seen from the above table that as a community the Muslims were more advanced than the whole body of Hindus and were inferior only to the advanced communities. It was, therefore, felt that the continuation of any special privileges to Muslims on the ground that they were educationally backward was no longer justified. At the same time, it was neither fair nor practicable to withdraw suddenly all the concessions and privileges which the Muslims had enjoyed for more than sixty years. The problem could not, however, be solved till 1947, mainly on account of the disturbed and uncertain political conditions of the period. Throughout the ten years of Provincial Autonomy, therefore,

the special privileges enjoyed by the Muslims in the earlier period were continued almost unchanged.

The attainment of Independence and the framing of the new Constitution in which no privileges were reserved to any community except the Anglo-Indians and the Backward Classes created an entirely different social and political situation. All the special privileges given to the Muslims in the past had, therefore, to be withdrawn inevitably. The special Inspectorate for Urdu Schools was, therefore, merged in the general Inspectorate; the Anglo-Urdu secondary schools conducted by Government were transferred to private enterprise, and all the reservation of seats in Government educational institutions as well as in Government service and the special scholarships and free-studentships were abolished. The Muslims, therefore, now stand on par with every other community in India, except the two mentioned above for whom certain concessions have been extended for a specified period.

IV Education of the Intermediate Classes

14 (11). *The Intermediate Classes*.—Prior to 1921-22, the Hindus were divided, for educational purposes, into two sections only, the Brahmins and non-Brahmins. But since 1921, they began to be divided into three—Advanced, Intermediate and Backward. The 'Advanced Classes' included Brahmins, Prabhus, Wanis, most of the Jains and some other minor castes. The 'Backward Classes' were defined in the manner described earlier in Chapter XII. The remaining Hindu castes were classified as 'Intermediate' and included Marathas, Kunabis, Kolis, Lingayats and most of the cultivating and artisan castes. The main reason for this classification was the administrative consideration that the Intermediate Classes could not either be left to compete freely with the Advanced Classes nor could they be given the concessions which the Backward Classes needed. This classification was, therefore, introduced in 1923-24 and was maintained till 1946-47. Hence it is necessary to note briefly the development of their education during this period.

The following educational concessions were given to the Intermediate Classes during this period:—

(i) Reservation of seats in Government colleges, secondary schools and training institutions. The percentage of seats reserved varied with the kind of institution and sometimes, even with the region.

(ii) Award of scholarships in arts and professional colleges and secondary schools. The number of scholarships in colleges were fixed a little arbitrarily on the basis of students enrolled and applications received. But in the case of scholarships in secondary schools, the general principle adopted was to award one set of seven scholarships for every 50,000 of their population.

(iii) In recruiting persons to services under Government, an attempt was made to recruit persons of the Intermediate Classes on the basis of their population. This was particularly attempted in the recruitment of primary teachers and yearly statistics of the number and percentage of primary teachers belonging to the Intermediate Classes were published.

(iv) Fairly liberal concessions in fees were allowed to the pupils of these classes in Government and local authority schools. As may be anticipated, these concessions stood midway between those given to the advanced and backward classes.

(v) The children of the Konkani Marathas in the Kanara, Kolaba and Ratnagiri Districts, if certified to be poor and deserving, were admitted free to all Government and aided primary and secondary schools.*

The problem of the "Intermediate Classes" had little significance in Gujarat and none whatsoever in Sind. In Maharashtra and Karnatak, however, the problem was both significant and complex and had social, economic and political implications. The Intermediate Classes of these areas had now become politically conscious and vocal and yearned for opportunities to compete with the Advanced Classes in almost every walk of life. The quarter century between the introduction of Dyarchy in 1925 and the attainment of Independence in 1947 thus witnessed an earnest struggle in this direction. The Intermediate Classes knew that they could hope to win their battle only if education became more widespread among them. Educational concessions and privileges of the above type were, therefore, necessary to help this large section of the community to come into its own, at least as a transitional measure, and it cannot be denied that but for them, the spread of education among the Intermediate Classes would neither have been so general nor so rapid.

The attainment of Independence, however, changed the entire concept of social organisation. During the British period the political conditions were such that class or caste consciousness was heightened rather than diminished. In complete contrast with this earlier state of affairs which had done incalculable harm to the country, it was now felt that class or caste consciousness should be minimised and that steps should be taken to create, as early as possible, a homogeneous and democratic social order based on justice and equality. The Constitution, therefore, laid it down that no privileges or concessions should be given to any classes or castes except, as a transitional measure, to the Anglo-Indians and the Backward Classes. Consequently, the special educational privileges given to the Intermediate Classes were withdrawn.

It must, however, be pointed out that Government has not tried to economise in any way by withdrawing the concessions which used to be given formerly to Muslims and other Intermediate Classes. Not only have all the concessions given earlier been continued, but they have also been largely supplemented by the institution of additional freestudentships and merit or loan scholarships. The financial assistance available to the poor students to-day is, therefore, much larger than that which was available before 1947. The only difference is that instead of giving freestudentships and scholarships on the basis of castes, Government now awards them on the basis of merit and poverty, subject to the general principle that preference is given to students from rural areas. These reforms in the direction of evolving more democratic social order have been welcomed by all sections of the community.

* This concession was partly due to their war service.

CHAPTER XV

OTHER EDUCATIONAL ACTIVITIES

In this concluding Chapter of the Review, it is proposed to give a brief historical account of the educational activities of the Department which have not been described earlier. They are:—

- (1) Pre-Primary Education;
- (2) Aesthetic Education;
- (3) Visual Education;
- (4) Oriental Studies;
- (5) Facilities for the Education of Displaced Persons;
- (6) Vocational Guidance Bureau;
- (7) Libraries;
- (8) Text-books;
- (9) Patronage to Literature;
- (10) Boy Scouts and Girl Guides;
- (11) Military Education;
- (12) Museums;
- (13) School Meals and School Medical Service; and
- (14) Bal Bhavan.

I Pre-Primary Education

15 (2). *Infant Classes (1887-1947).*—Although Pre-Primary Education is of very recent origin in this State, an attempt to provide for the education of young children was made as early as in 1887 when an Infants' Class was introduced at the bottom of the primary course. At that time, the age of admission to primary schools was five and not infrequently, children of four *plus* were also admitted to schools. It was felt that such young children should preferably be educated through Kindergarten methods. Hence Infant Classes (which were often divided into A and B sections according to the age and progress of the pupils) were added to all primary schools. A very simple curriculum of formal studies was drawn up for these classes and consisted of reading, counting numbers up to 100, and multiplication tables up to 10; but great emphasis was laid on object lessons, story-telling, chorus singing, games and such other activities as would make instruction delightful to young children. Kindergarten methods were also introduced in the primary training course so that the teachers may be adequately equipped to conduct efficient classes for infants.

This institution of the Infants' Class was thus a halfway house between full-fledged Pre-Primary Education on the one hand and formal Primary Education on the other. It was in existence for about sixty years, but its results were far from happy. The teachers were never adequately prepared for their task, partly because more than half the teachers never went to a training institution and partly because the study of Kindergarten methods was given a very small place in the crowded syllabuses

of the training course. Moreover, the size of the average Infants' Class was far too large to provide Kindergarten instruction on proper lines. Hardly any equipment for the teaching was available in the average primary school and even the parents sent their children to schools at this early age, not because they appreciated what went under the name of Kindergarten teaching in the schools of this period, but because they were anxious to get rid of a nuisance at home. The irregularity of attendance and stagnation in the Infants' Classes was considerable and very often a child even left the school at the Infant stage without even acquiring the rudiments of literacy. A view, therefore, began to be put forward that it would be desirable to abolish the wasteful Infants' Classes and to concentrate on the Primary Education of slightly grown up children. In the meantime, Pre-Primary Education proper had also come to be properly understood and appreciated in the State through several pioneer efforts which would be described in the following two sections. In 1947, therefore, Government finally decided to abolish the Infants' Classes and to raise the age of admission to primary schools to six *plus*.

15 (3). *Early Missionary Enterprise*.—In this field, as in several others, the pioneer work was done by the missions. Although exact statistics are not available several Kindergarten schools were conducted by the missionaries even during the nineteenth century. As early as in 1901-02, "The American Mission Josephine Kindergarten School" was started at Sholapur with the object of training teachers for the Kindergartens. It had to be closed in 1904-05; but it was revived in 1920-21 under the name of "Mary B. Hardinge Kindergarten Training School." It continues to work successfully to this date.

Although missionary enterprise in this field is of great pioneer value it did not spread to the body of the Indian Society. The important task of introducing Pre-Primary Education to the Indian public was, therefore, done by other Indian pioneers.

15 (4) *Pre-primary Education (1915-55)*.—Indian private enterprise in the field of Pre-Primary Education dates from the second decade of the present century. It may be recalled that the first Montessori school was founded in Italy in 1907 and that the work of Madame Montessori was first made known to the English-speaking world in 1912 when her books were translated into English. In 1914, some articles on her work first appeared in the Times of India and these attracted the attention of Darbar Gopaldas and Shri Motibhai Amin who started the first Montessori school in the State at Vaso (Baroda District) in 1915. Five years later, another great pioneer of the movement, Shri Gijubhai Badheka, established a Balmandir at Bhavnagar in 1920. He was soon joined by another great veteran worker, Shrimati Tarabai Modak, and the joint efforts of Shri Badheka and Shrimati Modak led to the organisation of the first Montessori Conference at Bhavnagar in 1925 and to the establishment of the *Nutan Bal Shikshana Sangh* in the same year. The modern history of Pre-Primary Education in the State may be said to date from this event.

During its life of 30 years, the Sangh has done yeoman service to the cause of Pre-Primary Education. It has carried on propaganda to awaken

public conscience to the need of Pre-Primary Education. It has been affiliating, inspecting and guiding a large number of pre-primary schools in the State. It conducts journals devoted to Pre-Primary Education in Marathi, Gujarati and Hindi and has also published quite a few books for children. It has been conducting institutions for the training of pre-primary teachers and has organised some important experiments in Pre-Primary Education. It would, therefore, be no exaggeration to state that the modern movement for Pre-Primary Education in the State is mainly due to this *Sangh* and its workers.

Statistics of Pre-Primary Education have been given in the Department Reports since 1947-48. The following table compiled from these statistics will give an idea of the extent to which the movement has spread so far:—

TABLE No. 15 (1)
Pre-Primary Education (1947-55)

Year.	No. of recognised Pre-Primary Schools.	No. of Pupils.	Total Grant-in-Aid paid by Government.
1	2	3	4
			Rs.
1947-48	53	3,661	16,690
1948-49	62	4,509	26,965
1949-50	125	8,886	32,623
1950-51	140	9,925	36,975
1951-52	159	11,093	38,071
1952-53	185	13,819	28,726
1953-54	196	15,164	20,200
1954-55	219	17,168	13,766

Prior to 1937, the movement had hardly made any headway and hence the question of recognising and aiding pre-primary schools did not arise. The system of recognising and aiding these institutions was, therefore, introduced by the Popular Ministry which assumed office under Provincial Autonomy. No separate rules were framed for these schools; but they were recognised as "special" institutions under the ordinary Grant-in-Aid Code and were made eligible to receive grants not exceeding 25 per cent. of their approved expenditure. When the Ministry returned to power in 1946 the problem was pursued still further. It was felt that Government should assume a more active role in assisting a movement which had hitherto been left mainly to private enterprise and charity. Hence an informal Committee was appointed in 1949 to examine the conditions under which these institutions were working and to recommend to Government the measures which should be adopted for the conduct of these institutions on proper lines. Among other recommendations, the Committee suggested an increase in the rate of grant to the pre-primary schools and accordingly the rate of grant payable to a pre-primary school

was raised to 40 per cent. of its admissible expenditure from 1949-50 if the tuition fee charged in the school did not exceed Rs. 3 per month. This was a good gesture no doubt, but it could not be maintained for long because of financial stringency. In 1950-51, the rate of grant-in-aid had to be reduced to 37½ per cent. and in 1951-52, it was reduced still further to 25 per cent. Even this rate could not be maintained for all schools and, therefore, it was decided in 1952-53 that State aid should be discontinued in the case of all pre-primary schools which had been in receipt of grants for more than five years, except in the case of those situated in backward or slum areas. Government, therefore, has not yet been able to render effective financial assistance to this movement and it still continues to be mainly supported by fees as in the past.*

15 (5). *Training of Teachers for Pre-primary Schools.*—Another important problem that had to be faced at this level was the provision of institutions that would train teachers for pre-primary schools. Reference has already been made to the training institution conducted by the Missions at Sholapur. Another missionary training institution in the field—the Archbishop Robert Training College—was organised at Bandra in 1939. But the first pre-primary training institution to be conducted by the Indians was the Bal Adhyapan Mandir started by Shri Gijubhai Badheka at Bhavnagar in 1923. Several Gujarati teachers from the State received training at this pioneer institution. In 1937 Shrimati Tarabai Modak started her training institution in Bombay. This is the first training school of its type to be established in this State and trains both Marathi and Gujarati teachers. During the last 17 years, it has trained more than 1,500 teachers. More recently, training institutions have been established at Hingne, near Poona, (1945); at Bordi, Thana District (1946); Vile Parle in Bombay, (1953), and at Ahmedabad (1955).

The Department recognises and aids pre-primary training institutions and it also conducts an examination, known as the Pre-primary Teachers Certificate Examination, at the end of the training course. The results of the Examination are given in the following table:—

TABLE No. 15 (2)
Pre-primary Teachers' Certificate Examination Results (1949-55)

Year.	No. of Candidates Appeared.	No. of Candidates Passed.
1949-50	81	78
1950-51	102	83
1951-52	152	125
1952-53	209	170
1953-54	245	200
1954-55	291	246

*Compare the following statistics:—

Year.	Total Expenditure of Pre-Primary Schools.	Government grant paid. Rs.
1952-53	7,38,075	28,726
1953-54	7,83,799	20,200
1954-55	8,19,233	13,766

15 (6). *Rural Pre-Primary Education.*—The existing institutions of Pre-Primary Education are almost exclusively situated in urban areas. Hence the non-official workers in the field have recently begun to conduct experiments in Pre-Primary Education in rural areas. One such experiment is conducted at Bordi by Shrimati Tarabai Modak. Here she is attempting to evolve the new techniques needed to spread Pre-Primary Education in rural areas. Cheap equipment is being prepared out of local materials and teachers are trained to make it for themselves. Moreover, an interesting experiment of a mobile play centre whose object is to educate not only young children but parents as well is being conducted for some years at a very small cost.

The work of this centre has made a significant progress during the last few years and it is hoped that it would materially assist in popularising this activity in our villages. The centre is recognised and financially assisted by Government.

II Aesthetic Education

15 (7). *Sir J. J. School of Art.*—Until recently, the history of Art Education in this State was almost synonymous with that of the Sir J. J. School of Art which was founded in January, 1857 and named after Sir Jamshetji Jeejeebhoy who gave a munificent donation of Rs. 1,00,000 for the purpose. At this time it had no independent building and was, therefore, located in the premises of the Elphinstone Institution, the only courses it conducted were part-time drawing classes for two hours a day under a temporary local instructor, and its administration was placed under a special Committee constituted for the purpose. But before the year was over, an instructor from England was appointed; the institution was shifted to another building lent exclusively for its use by Sir Jamshedji; and classes for Design and Engraving were added. In 1865, three ateliers under European professors were added for decorative painting, modelling and ornamental wrought-iron work.

By 1870 several difficulties began to be experienced. The School needed extensive premises of its own to house all its expanded activities. The system of management by a Committee had proved to be unsatisfactory; and the independent control of each atelier by the professor-in-charge and the want of co-ordination between the ateliers and the drawing classes conducted by the Superintendent, had led to an inharmonious working of the whole scheme. To meet these defects, Government decided to assume entire control of the institution, to become responsible for the cost of its upkeep, to arrange for the appointment of an adequate staff of professors and instructors and to undertake the erection of permanent and suitable buildings for the accommodation of the several departments. The Sir J. J. School of Art accordingly became a Government Institution under the Education Department and a budget allotment was made for its maintenance (1871). Mr. Griffiths was appointed Principal and the Drawing School and Painting and Modelling ateliers were combined under one roof and the present building was erected by Government at a cost of nearly Rs. 2,00,000 (1878). With these radical changes, a new chapter was started in the life of the School and a period of rapid development set in.

In 1887, a class for training drawing teachers was added and a system of drawing examinations for schools was organised. In 1891, the Reay Art Workshops were established with the object of stimulating the artistic industries of India—one of the important objects for which the School has been founded. Mr. Terry, the first permanent Superintendent of the School, had, on his retirement, been permitted to establish pottery works in the School compound. On his departure from India, these were taken over by Government and incorporated in the School as a separate department. At the turn of the century, therefore, the School had grown to considerable proportions. It had a student population of about 400, a large staff consisting of a Principal, Vice-Principal, several lecturers and assistant masters, and a total annual expenditure of about Rs. 50,000.

Between 1901 and 1929, the School progressed in several directions. The system of teaching was modernised and the design and technical methods employed in the Reay Art Workshops were improved. A special School of Architecture was established. An Inspector of Drawing and Craft-work was appointed to organise the drawing examinations and to inspect the drawing classes in the State.* A range of laboratories and studios was erected to assist the development of applied arts. The study of nude from life was introduced for the first time. Government Diplomas in Painting, Modelling, and Architecture, were instituted. The subject of Indian Art was given a place in the School curriculum and classes for Indian Decorative Painting and Mural Painting were added. It is worthy of note that the School has since executed several decorations for public and private buildings. All these developments led to a great expansion in the activities of the School and it was, therefore, proposed that the School should be made independent of the then Department of Public Instruction and placed under its own Director who would be directly subordinate to Government. This was accepted and the School started its life as an independent Department in 1929.

In 1935 a section of Commercial Art was introduced and it was developed very considerably between 1936 and 1946. New subjects such as Photography, Lithography, Blockmaking, Interior Decoration (Crafts and Design), Printing, Book-binding and Packing were introduced and visiting lecturers were appointed to teach the subjects.

In 1946, the continuous succession of European Heads of the School came to an end and for the first time in its history, an Indian (Shri V. S. Adurkar) was appointed as the Director of the institution. The next few years saw a number of administrative changes. On the recommendation of the Art Education Committee,† Government abolished the post of the Deputy Director of the School in 1948 and created a post of Secretary to the Director to help him in the day-to-day administration. The post of the Secretary was abolished in 1950 when Government decided to bifurcate the duties of the Director, keep the post of the Director in abeyance and to create two posts—one of the Dean for Administration and the other of the Joint Dean (Instruction). This arrangement continued till

*He continued the work on the staff of the School till 1931 when he was put under the control of the Director of Education.

† This was appointed in 1946 under the Chairmanship of Shrimati Hansa Mehta. Its report was submitted in 1947.

1953 when, after abolishing the post of the Joint Dean, both the duties were amalgamated and in November of the same year, the post of the Director was revived under the designation of the Dean.

Since 1947 the School has been making very rapid progress. The Architectural Department has been affiliated to the University of Bombay for starting a Degree Course in Architecture. Full-day classes have been started in the Commercial Art Section to give sufficient time for the students to complete the syllabus. The Classes in the Architectural Department are duplicated to allow the benefit of the training to more students. Part-time classes have been introduced in (1) Drawing and Painting, (2) Modelling, (3) Photography, Lithography, Blockmaking and Interior Decoration in the Commercial Art, and (4) Graphic Arts, with a view to provide facilities for those who are unable to join the regular classes. More scholarships, particularly to the backward class candidates, have been sanctioned. In order to overcome the shortage of accommodation, an additional story has been erected on the existing building which housed the Architectural Section and the premises of the Reay Art Workshops have also been extended. With the help of the Central Government, a new building for the Department of Architecture is to be constructed very soon. A hostel for students has also been sanctioned and it is hoped that, with these additions to the accommodation, the School of Art will be a self-contained unit in the midst of picturesque surroundings.

In 1954-55, the School had a total student population of 1,267 of whom 1,034 were boys and 233 were girls. 159 students (154 boys and 5 girls) read in the degree classes and the rest for the diploma and certificate courses. The total direct expenditure on the School came to Rs. 3,98,528 of which Rs. 2,43,256 came from State funds and Rs. 1,52,940 from fees.

15 (8). *Other Institutions for the teaching of Art.*—Although the Sir J. J. School of Art occupies the position of the premier institution for the teaching of Art, it is very satisfactory to note that its work is now being supplemented by some younger institutions who show good promise of development. Among these mention must be made of the Faculty of Fine Arts of the M. S. University of Baroda. In addition to the usual courses in Arts, this Faculty includes the study of Indian music, dance and dramatics and provides courses leading to the Degree of B.A. in Painting, Sculpture and Applied Arts and Crafts and to the Diploma in these subjects. The Faculty also provides courses for the Certificates in Photography and Lithography and a post-graduate Diploma in Museology. Other institutions which are doing very good work in the field although they have not reached the status of the two institutions mentioned above are the Institute of Modern Art, Poona, School of Art, Dharwar, and the School of Art of the C. N. Vidyavihar, Ahmedabad. These institutions are allowed by the Department to conduct, on prescribed terms, the normal classes for drawing teachers for their respective regions. They are also granted regional centres for the Government Higher Art Examinations in Drawing and Painting for which a large number of candidates are prepared and sent up by the Art Institutes and Classes in the mofussil. The training facilities in Art Education afforded by these institutions are a source of inspiration to the general mofussil public.

On 31st March, 1955, there were in all 17 Schools of Fine Arts (other than Music and Dancing) with an enrolment of 981 pupils (815 boys and 166 girls). Their total expenditure came to Rs. 1,17,407 which was met from Government funds, (Rs. 33,741) fees (Rs. 61,934) and other sources (Rs. 21,732).

15 (9). *Drawing in Primary and Secondary Schools and Primary Training Institutions*.—Drawing was introduced as a compulsory subject in the curriculum of primary schools in 1901-02. At that time the subject was taught only up to Standard V and the syllabus prescribed a set of simple objects which the children were required to draw. As it was not possible to appoint special teachers of drawing except in big urban schools, the study of drawing was introduced in the primary training course and every teacher was given some elementary instruction in drawing. As may be easily imagined under these circumstances, the actual teaching of drawing in primary schools was very unsatisfactory. The teachers reproduced the prescribed objects from printed books or charts and the children merely tried to copy the teachers' blackboard diagrams or pictures from books. In 1913, therefore, an attempt was made to improve the conditions. A detailed syllabus was drawn up in drawing for all the primary standards. In 1925, a more detailed syllabus in drawing was again published. These syllabuses contained detailed instructions for teachers and, combined with the reforms that were introduced in the teaching of drawing in primary training institutions, led to some improvement in the situation. In 1935, a still further revision was made. The main object of the revision was to remove the artificial barrier which then existed between hand-work and drawing and to merge the two together. In 1948, drawing was also made an examination subject (as an option under Group V) in the common Primary School Certificate Examination for boys and girls. In spite of all these changes, however, the teaching of drawing in the average primary school leaves much to be desired and the broader concept of Art Education as a medium which can develop the creative self-expression innate in every child is yet to be realised by the body of primary teachers. The Art Education Committee made some important recommendations to remedy these defects* and it is along the lines suggested by the Committee that attempts are being made at present.

In the secondary schools, drawing was first introduced as a subject of study in 1879. The reform began in Government secondary schools and gradually spread to the other schools. In 1887 the training of drawing teachers was begun in the Sir J. J. School of Art, and as qualified teachers became available the standard of teaching the subject also began to improve. Special arrangements for the inspection of the teaching of drawing were made by the creation of the post of Inspector of Drawing and Craft-work. The conditions of the teaching of drawing in secondary schools have, therefore, improved very materially during the present century and the importance of the subject is being increasingly realised. The Art Education Committee has also made valuable recommendations for improving the teaching of Art in secondary schools. The Inspecting

staff and the Art Masters are now trying to implement these recommendations and to adjust themselves to the new trends in the field of Art Education.

15 (10). *Drawing Examinations*.—In 1887, the Sir J. J. School of Art started a system of Drawing Examinations for schools, similar to those held in England under the Science and Art Department. Government also decided to encourage them by grants-in-aid on the basis of results. At this time, the only examinations organised were four, viz., the Elementary Draughtsmen's Examination and Art Examinations of the I, II, and III Grade. All these examinations used to be conducted by the staff of Sir J. J. School of Art.

These examinations became extremely popular and by 1910 thousands of students began to appear for them annually. This threw so great a burden of work upon the staff of Sir J. J. School of Art that their normal duties began to suffer. In 1915, therefore, the conduct of all these examinations was transferred to the Inspector of Drawing and Craft-work whose post was newly created. The courses for the examinations were also revised. The I Grade Examination was abolished and the II and III Grade Examinations were re-organised as Elementary and Intermediate. Several other examinations of a higher order were also instituted. The Drawing Grade Examinations have become very popular and have assumed an All-India character. They are now being held at more than 200 centres.

The following tables give the statistics of these examinations for a few selected years:—

TABLE NO. 15 (3)

Drawing Grade Examinations (established 1916)

Year.	Bombay state.			Outside the Bombay State.			Total.		
	No. of Centres.	No. appeared.	No. passed.	No. of Centres.	No. appeared.	No. passed.	No. of Centres.	No. appeared.	No. passed.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1931-32	79	Not available		75	Not available		154	9,012	4,654
1936-37	88	6,299	3,833	78	4,855	2,874	166	11,154	67
1941-42	86	9583	6,155	67	3,802	2,526	153	13,385	
1946-47	100	13,453	9,155	77	6,203	4,153			
1951-52	110	25,031	17,407	70	6,221	4,236			
1953-54	122	29,869	19,608	74	7,203	4,607			
1954-55	126	30,488	19,548	75	8,329	5,975			

* The Examinations for teachers of Drawing which Chapter VII have been excluded from the account

TABLE

Government Higher

Examination.		1916-17.		1921-22.		1926-27.		1931-32.	
		Number appeared.	Number passed.	Number appeared.	Number passed.	Number appeared.	Number passed.	Number appeared.	Number passed.
<i>Drawing & Painting</i>									
Elementary	...	24	18	38	16	58	36
Intermediate	...	12	10	14	10	17	14	34	21
Advanced	...	22	15	17	13	16	13	30	18
Diploma	5	4	4	4	19	6
<i>Modelling</i>									
Elementary	...	4	3	3	3	2	2
Intermediate	2	2	3	3	2	2
Advanced	2	2	3	3
Diploma	6	1
<i>Architecture</i>									
Elementary	...	N. A.	22	13	9	35	19	40	22
Intermediate	...	N. A.	20	19	12	32	16	19	12
Advanced	...	N. A.	16	13	8	19	10	33	21
Diploma	20	6	22	16
<i>Commercial Art</i>									
Elementary
Intermediate
Advanced
Diploma

No. 15 (4)

Art Examinations

		1936-37.		1941-42.		1946-47.		1951-52.		1953-54.		1954-55.	
		Number appeared.	Number passed.	Number appeared.	Number passed.	Number appeared.	Number passed.	Number appeared.	Number passed.	Number appeared.	Number passed.	Number appeared.	Number passed.
102	62	130	85	215	153	472	215	480	201	519	180		
46	31	100	62	94	68	142	132	206	104	200	59		
79	61	72	42	85	66	149	113	181	80	160	67		
54	32	56	24	51	32	112	71	105	63	107	64		
3	3	5	4	7	7	8	6	10	8	10	8		
6	6	5	4	5	5	7	6	6	6	8	7		
5	5	5	4	2	2	5	5	3	2	6	5		
2	2	3	3	2	...	6	3	5	2	3	2		
28	13	40	19	34	21	6	3	20	4	21	11		
25	8	43	18	28	14	3	1	4	2	39	12		
39	22	32	8	24	17	1	1	4	2	70	36		
38	19	20	3	8	3	5	5	2	2	66	24		
...	...	69	50	101	74	186	104	120	74	165	94		
...	...	62	36	62	40	96	47	146	78	111	52		
...	...	51	20	25	13	81	29	61	33	89	61		
...	31	17	62	27	54	31	47	24		

Until 1950, these examinations were being conducted with the help of a Board of Examiners. But as several practical difficulties were experienced in its working, it was replaced by an Examination Committee in 1950. Even in the short period for which it has been in existence the Committee has carried out a number of useful reforms which have increased the efficiency of the administrative machine.

15 (11). *Inspector of Drawing and Craft-work*.—Prior to 1914, the Head of the Sir J. J. School of Art was responsible for the conduct of the Drawing Grade and other Examinations as well as for the inspection of the teaching of drawing in secondary and primary schools. As these additional duties involved too much strain on him the post of the Inspector of Drawing and Craft-work was created in 1915. The main responsibilities of this officer are to inspect Higher Art Institutes and the teaching of drawing in secondary and primary schools, the conduct of Government Drawing Grade Examinations, the award of drawing grants to secondary schools, etc. Since 1949, two posts (in B. E. S. Class II) of Assistant Inspectors of Drawing and Craft-work have also been created in order to enable the Inspector to cope with his growing responsibilities.

15 (12). *Music Education*.—Provision for Music Education in the State has not been very satisfactory. With the advent of British rule, the patronage to Indian Music came to be mainly restricted to the rulers of the Indian States. Some of them continued the older tradition and encouraged the study of music very liberally. Among them, mention must be made of Baroda where a music school was founded as early as in 1886 in order to provide facilities for high class training in Hindustani Music—Vocal and instrumental. This is one of the premier institutions of its type in India. But instances of such patronage were few and it cannot be gainsaid that the cause of Indian Music received a set back in the modern period.

This loss of royal patronage was made good to some extent by the new rising class of the intelligentsia. The educated people, some of whom were keenly interested in Indian Music, founded *Gayana Samajas* in most of the urban centres. These *Samajas* or groups of appreciators of music were often organised as societies and sometimes as clubs. They arranged occasional musical performances of well-known artists and held discussions and meetings at which papers on music were read. They also engaged musicians to conduct music classes for the benefit of children of their members. The musicians themselves soon realised that such classes appealed strongly to the educated people and over and above the training of a few *Shishyas* in the traditional manner, they began to open such classes wherever they went and found it a profitable business. Some of the classes developed into regular *Sangeet Vidyalayas*. There were, however, hardly any music institutions worth the name until the Gandharva Maha Vidyalaya was opened by the late Pandit Vishnu Digamber and others, in 1901. There are now a number of such music schools and some of them are duly registered as public societies. Some of these schools are very efficiently managed with as many as 9 classes and a daily attendance of 200 or so. At their request, Government has arranged for an annual inspection of these schools, and these have

usually been followed by very satisfactory reports about their work. Some schools have even attained such higher standards that their diplomas and degrees have come to be recognised by Government and other public bodies in making appointments of music teachers. It has, however, not yet been possible for Government to introduce a general system of grant-in-aid to music schools.

In 1948, Government appointed a Committee under the Chairmanship of Shri G. B. Jathar to advise Government regarding the manner in which the study and appreciation of music could be promoted.

On 31st March, 1955, there was only one institution which gave instruction in music at the university level, viz., the Faculty of Indian Music, Dance and Dramatics of the M. S. University of Baroda. Besides, there were 36 music schools in the State with an enrolment of 792 pupils (370 boys and 422 girls). Their total direct expenditure came to Rs. 1,17,213 out of which Municipal funds, fees, and other sources contributed Rs. 350, Rs. 85,605 and Rs. 31,258 respectively.*

15 (13). *Dramatic Art*.—Government have recently decided to utilise the proceeds of the entertainment tax to encourage Dramatic Art and a part of the comprehensive programme drawn up for the purpose is being executed by the Education Department.

In 1954-55, prizes of the value of Rs. 4,000 (Rs. 2,500 for the first prize Rs. 1,000 for the second prize, Rs. 500 for the third prize) were awarded to the best published plays in each of the three regional languages of the State. Also three prizes of the value of Rs. 1,000 (I prize), Rs. 500 (II prize), Rs. 250 (III prize) were awarded to the best children's plays written in each of these languages. The total expenditure on this account was Rs. 13,750. Grants for the construction of open-air theatres were paid as follows:—

	Rs.
(i) Ahmedabad Municipal Corporation	25,000
(ii) Dharwar Municipality	12,500
(iii) Surat Municipality	12,500
(iv) Satara Municipality	25,000
Total	75,000

Dramatic competitions were organised on district basis in secondary and primary schools. The organisation of these competitions was entrusted to Educational Inspectors and Administrative Officers of the districts concerned. One rotating shield was awarded to the team giving the best performance from amongst the secondary and primary schools of every district. Similarly, three medals for the best individual performance for each section (secondary and primary) were also awarded. The total

*There is only one regular school of dancing at Poona. There are, it is true, several other schools or institutions where dancing is taught, but full data regarding these is not available. No special section has, therefore, been written on these institutions.

expenditure on account of the shields and medals was Rs. 18,000. In addition to this, an amount of Rs. 20,075 was spent on the incidental expenses of the competitions.

With effect from 1955-56, it is also proposed to organise drama competitions in the colleges affiliated to the universities.

In addition to these competitions for educational institutions which are organised through the Department, dramatic competitions by the members of the public are also organised. The first competitions are held on a district basis and the final contest is held on the regional basis. Prizes of substantial value are awarded to the three best performances every year in each regional language.

III Visual Education

~~15 (14)~~ *The Visual Education Inspectorate.*—The idea of using magic lantern slides for “breaking the monotony of oral lessons and rendering instruction more interesting and impressive” was first conceived by Mr. W. H. Sharp who was the Director of Education from 1909 to 1917. He had his own personal stock of slides and a magic lantern with which he used to deliver lectures in schools while on tour. It was mainly on account of his strong recommendations that Government sanctioned the first grant of Rs. 3,500 for Visual Education in 1911-12. This small beginning was followed up, in successive years, by larger and almost continuous annual grants—recurring and non-recurring. The Department utilised these funds in purchasing magic lanterns which were distributed to Government high schools, teacher training institutions, and inspecting officers, and in purchasing and maintaining a large central stock of slides. The work used to be looked after by an Officer of the Department in addition to his own duties; but in spite of all the limitations of personnel and funds, the use of the magic lantern as a medium of instruction became popular and well-established by 1918-19.

In 1919-20, therefore, it was decided to create a Special Officer for Visual Education. In the following year, a new post designated as “Deputy Educational Inspector for Visual Education” was created in the Bombay Educational Service and the officer holding it was placed in sole charge of the development of Visual Education in the State as a whole. The work made steady progress till 1947-48 when Government decided to expand the activities of this section on a much larger scale. The post of the Deputy Educational Inspector for Visual Education which used to be in B. E. S. Class II, was now upgraded to B. E. S. Class I and its designation was altered as “Inspector for Visual Education” Bombay State. Government also increased the recurring grant of this Department very substantially from the same year. In 1948-49, it appointed two Boards consisting official and non-official Members to advise Government on matters pertaining to Visual Education such as the purchase, production or the dubbing of films, the organisation of visual aids exhibitions and the co-ordination of the activities of other Government Departments with those of the Visual Education Office.* Government also strengthened the staff of the Visual

* In 1950-51, only one new Board was constituted in place of these two Boards and even this one Board was abolished in 1953-54.

Education Office and introduced a scheme of grant-in-aid to private schools for the purchase of costly Visual Education equipment.

~~As at present constituted~~, the following are some of the main activities of this Section:—

- (i) Purchase of audio-visual material such as films, filmstrips, slides, maps, charts, illustrated books, models, graphs etc.;
- (ii) Supervision and upkeep of all audio-visual aids distributed among Government institutions and inspecting officers in the State;
- (iii) Advising heads of private secondary schools and social education organizations in the purchase and use of audio-visual teaching aids;
- (iv) Arranging lectures, demonstrations, model lessons and film-shows for schools and the public;
- (v) Production of educational films, film-strips, and cheap audio-visual aids;
- (vi) Organizing audio-visual aids exhibitions to make teachers and public conscious of the importance of audio-visual education;
- (vii) Conducting short term courses in audio-visual education;
- (viii) Maintaining a distribution service for all types of visual aids.

15 (15). *The Magic Lantern.*—In the early years of the Visual Education Office, the magic lantern was the sole medium of audio-visual teaching and hence the chief activities of the Section were to prepare and distribute magic lantern slides and to arrange magic lantern lectures. In recent years, however, the magic lantern has been pushed into the background and the film-projector has very largely taken its place. The following statistics on the use of the magic lantern which have been collected from the Departmental Reports, will illustrate this trend.

TABLE No. 15 (5)
Use of the Magic Lantern (1919-55)

Year.	Number of Magic Lanterns.	Number of Sets of Slides.	Number of Slides.	Number of Magic Lantern Lectures Delivered.
1	2	3	4	5
1919-20	98	360	19,974	786
1921-22	98	436	25,000	1,223
1926-27	100	529	27,810	2,290
1931-32	104	670	34,444	3,291
1936-37	86	693	35,261	3,545
1941-42	115	718	36,807	over 3,000
1946-47	119	664	29,743	4,386
1951-52	119	706	30,741	899
1953-54	119	706	30,741	954
1954-55	119	706	30,741	655

It will be seen that the magic lantern is fast losing ground as an educational medium. The 35 mm. film strip projector serves the purpose

of a magic lantern in a better way, and hence the tendency to use this compact and economical modern device in preference to the magic lantern is becoming more common. It is, therefore, next to impossible to elevate the magic lantern to its old place of glory. Perhaps it may even be totally ousted by the film strip projector during the next few years.

15 (16). *The Film and the Film strip*.—The film and the film-strip made a rather late entry in the field of Visual Education. In the early years, the use of the film as an educational medium was largely opposed by educators on several grounds, the chief being the probable damage to eye-sight and the risks of fire.* But with the advance of technology and the availability of better films and film-projectors, these objections steadily died down. Government, therefore, sanctioned funds for the purchase of similar equipment for the Visual Education Office (1937-38) and with this event the Educational Film definitely began to come into its own.

Between 1938 and 1947 the use of the film and film strip became very common. The lead in this matter was taken by the progressive private schools in cities and by organizations like the Bombay Municipal Corporation. The Department was also assisted by the United Office of War Information which lent 34 film-strip projectors for its use. When additional funds were sanctioned by Government for Visual Education work in the Post-War Reconstruction Plan (1947-52), the work of supplying film and film-strip projectors to Government and private schools was speeded up considerably and the Visual Education Office built up a central library of films and film-strips for the use of the educational institutions in the State. The progress achieved during the last seven years can be seen from the following table:—

TABLE No. 15 (6)

Use of Films and Film-Strips (1946-55)

	1946-47.	1951-52.	1953-54.	1954-55.
1. No. of Silent Projectors ...	1	50	50	50
2. No. of Sound Projectors ...	18	66	71	79
3. No. of 35 mm. Film-Strip Projectors ...	39	30	40	40
4. No. of Electricity Generators ...	4	34	34	35
5. No. of Sound and Silent 16 mm. Films.	129	1,643	1,783	1,811
6. No. of 35 mm. Film-Strips	1,000	1,686	1,717
7. No. of 35 mm. Film-Strip Lectures	69	302	304
8. No. of Film-Shows arranged by Municipal School Boards.	...	84	121	59
9. No. of Film-Shows arranged by Private Institutions.	...	5,307	5,506	2,845
10. No. of Film-Shows arranged by Private Schools.	...	688	1,027	971
11. No. of Institutions borrowing Films and Film-Strips.	55	321	348	360

N.B.—The fall in the work seen under some of the items in the above table was temporary and due partly to the absence of the Inspector for Visual Education who was deputed to Delhi for about 2½ months and partly to the delay in obtaining exemption from the licensing system to show Educational Films in schools.

*Vide Proceedings of the Imperial Educational Conference, 1923.

15 (17). *Training of Teachers in Audio-Visual Education*.—The training of teachers in audio-visual education is another special responsibility of this Section. For this purpose, it conducts annually one-term course in collaboration with the authorities of the S. T. College, Bombay and gives instruction in audio-visual aids to all the students of this College. Besides, it conducts short-term courses in audio-visual education for teachers of secondary schools and members of the staff of training institutions. The details of these are given in the following table:—

TABLE No. 15 (7)

Short-term Courses for the Training of Teachers in Audio-Visual Aids

Year.	No. of Classes.	No. of Teachers Trained.
1950-51 ...	3	280
1951-52 ...	3	205
1952-53 ...	3	183
1953-54 ...	3	141
1954-55 ...	1	30

As another method of educating teachers in the use of audio-visual aids, this Section has been organising exhibitions of visual aids in all parts of the State. Since 1947-48, 22 such exhibitions were held. They proved to be of great assistance in stimulating general interest in audio-visual education.

15 (18). *Expenditure*.—The following table will give an idea of the total expenditure incurred by Government on this Section since 1946-47:—

TABLE No. 15 (8)

Expenditure incurred by Government on Visual Education (1946-55)

	1946-47.	1951-52.	1953-54.	1954-55.
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
1. Establishment ...	12,102	22,718	21,540	20,563
2. Expenditure on the Magic Lantern Section.	5,441	6,983	6,995	3,188
3. Grants-in-aid given to private institutions and schools for the purchase of Audio-Visual Equipment.	...	22,324	*	*
4. Expenditure on the production of new Films.	...	5,171	1,786	1,563
5. Expenditure on the purchase of Films and Film-Strips.	11,911	42,283	15,195	18,077
6. Expenditure on the film and Film-Strip Section (excluding expenditure given above under items 4 and 5).	...	6,269	3,609	2,963
7. Other expenditure ...	63,088	26,120	28,509	58,380
Grand total of all expenditure on Visual Education.	92,542	1,31,868	77,634	1,04,734

* This grant was merged with the general equipment grant in 1953-54. Schools are now given a grant-in-aid of 25 per cent. on the expenditure incurred by them on Visual Education equipment.

IV *Oriental Studies*

15 (19). *Early Beginnings*.—The contact between the East and the West which came in the wake of the British conquest of India led to two entirely different reactions among Western scholars. In one group, represented by Macaulay, it created a dislike and contempt for all Eastern learning. But in another group which is represented by such eminent orientalists like William Jones and Max Muller, it created a deep love for the classical languages and literatures of Asia in general and India in particular. This latter view dominated the British administrators in the early years of the nineteenth century. That is why the Charter Act of 1813 spoke of the 'revival and improvement of literature and the encouragement of the learned Natives of India.' The same consideration was also partly responsible for the establishment of the Hindu College at Poona in 1821 and for the decision to distribute Rs. 50,000 a year as *Dakshina* to Brahmins. This trend, however, receded in the background between 1835 and 1855 when protagonists of the other group like Macaulay in Bengal and Sir Erskine Perry in Bombay dominated the situation and, consequently, oriental studies received a set back. It was during this period that the Poona Sanskrit College was reorganised in such a manner that an institution which used to be devoted exclusively to oriental studies in an oriental fashion was now converted into a modern English college and only a small section thereof—known as the Sanskrit Department—was reserved for oriental studies.

15 (20). *Oriental Studies (1855-1901)*.—With the creation of the Department in 1855, oriental studies began to receive much greater Governmental support than in the past. Howard had a deep respect for the oriental classics, although he disliked the traditional method of studying them as being unscientific and wasteful. He made two great contributions to oriental studies. The first was to enable non-Brahmins to study Sanskrit. Prior to 1856 the Shastries in the Poona Sanskrit College taught Brahmin students only and refused to teach the sacred lore to any one except a Brahmin. With the help of Shri Krishnashastri Chiplunkar, Howard broke down this traditional prejudice and started the practice of teaching Sanskrit even to non-Brahmins. His second contribution was to invite eminent orientalists from the West to serve in the Education Department and to acquaint the Indian people, through the efforts of these learned scholars, with the modern and scientific method of studying classical literature. This policy was also continued by Grant and among the great Western Orientalists that served in the Department under these two Directors, mention must be made of Dr. Martin Haug, Dr. Kielhorn and Dr. Buhler. These scholars may be said to have laid the foundation of the modern study of Sanskrit classics in the Bombay University.

Grant, who was a profound classical scholar, made two other important contributions to oriental studies. Firstly, he made the study of classical languages obligatory in all secondary schools and at the university level as well; and secondly, it was with his support that Kielhorn and Buhler began to collect old classical manuscripts from all parts of the State. This important undertaking led, in course of time, to the building up of

a library of more than 20,000 manuscripts of Sanskrit and Prakrit works. Besides, it also led to the foundation of the Bombay Sanskrit and Prakrit Series in which a large number of classical works were published from time to time.

The splendid lead thus given by Howard and Grant was kept up by Peile and Chatfield so that a scientific study of the classical languages became an established feature of the higher education in this State. What is more important, it created a band of Indian scholars who were well-versed in the scientific method of studying the classics and who even surpassed both in the quantity and quality of their work, the Western Orientalists at whose feet they had first received instruction in the new technique. The most prominent among them was Sir Ramkrishna G. Bhandarkar whose great services to the cause of oriental research are fitly commemorated by the Bhandarkar Oriental Research Institute in Poona.

15 (21). *Oriental Studies (1901-55)*.—By the turn of the nineteenth century, therefore, the leadership in the field had already begun to pass from Western to Indian scholars and from official to non-official hands. The public was now coming forward to support the movement and a number of non-official organisations were being established with the object of promoting oriental studies. Similarly, several eminent scholars were coming forward to devote their lives to a study of the ancient classics in a spirit of service and sacrifice. Government decided to encourage this new trend, and consequently, direct State enterprise was curtailed to the minimum and a policy of encouraging private enterprise by a suitable system of grant-in-aid was adopted. As a direct corollary of this new policy, the manuscript collection at the Deccan College as well as the management of the Bombay Sanskrit and Prakrit Series was transferred to the Bhandarkar Oriental Research Institute in 1918.

In the course of the last hundred years, and especially after 1900, several institutions of oriental learning have come into existence through Indian private enterprise or have been brought under non-official Indian control. As many as 34 such institutions were on the record of the Department in 1954-55. As it is impossible to give a detailed account of all these institutions in this brief Review, short notes on the more important among them are given below to show the extent and nature of the oriental research that is now being carried on in this State.

(a) *Bombay Branch of the Royal Asiatic Society (established 1804)*.—This is the oldest oriental institute in the State. It now maintains an excellent library in Bombay as well as the Central Copyright Library of the State. It conducts a well-known journal devoted to oriental research, and awards three medals in recognition of outstanding research work apart from organising lectures and exhibitions, on oriental subjects.

(b) *The Deccan College Post-graduate and Research Institute, Poona*.—This institution is the direct descendant of the Hindu College, Poona, which was established in 1821. As stated earlier, this college developed into the Deccan College which was closed on grounds of economy in 1934, but was revived as a Post-graduate and Research Institute in 1939.

The Institute conducts a Department of Indo-European Philology which has undertaken the ambitious project of compiling a comprehensive "Dictionary of Sanskrit on Historical Principles," comparable to the great Oxford English Dictionary. While the project is financed mainly by the Government of India, other State Governments, Universities, International bodies like UNESCO and private donors are also making regular grants for the purpose. The scheme has been welcomed and widely appreciated by Sanskrit scholars in India as well as in foreign countries. Though the main work for the collection of material for the Dictionary is being done at the Institute, a few local centres have also been established in other parts of India and in foreign countries. At the present rate of work, it is hoped to complete the project in about 20 years' time.

The second important scheme recently undertaken by the Institute in the Department of Linguistics is that of the scientific study and development of Indian languages. India is rich in linguistic material and, according to a meticulous examination, more than 800 languages and dialects are spoken in different parts of the country. The scientific study and development of Indian languages has thus a special importance in India. The Institute convened, in 1953, a Conference of Linguists and Educationists in the country to consider how best the scientific study of Indian languages could be promoted. It passed a number of resolutions bearing on the fundamental needs of Indian languages and evolved a scheme for holding seasonal Schools of Linguistics for imparting intensive training in field methods and application of linguistics to practical needs. In pursuance of the scheme, the Institute organized a series of three schools, each of six weeks' duration, in 1954-55. Courses at these schools were conducted by distinguished linguists from all over India and abroad. These schools evoked very enthusiastic response and over 250 scholars representing different language-groups took advantage of the special course offered. At the end of these schools, nine Fellowships each of Rs. 250 per month tenable for a year are offered to promising young scholars who are specially selected to undergo further intensive training in linguistics and field techniques at the Institute. These Fellows will also carry out specific research tasks in the two proposed important projects of the Linguistic Survey of India and the preparation of common graded vocabularies of the principal Indian languages.

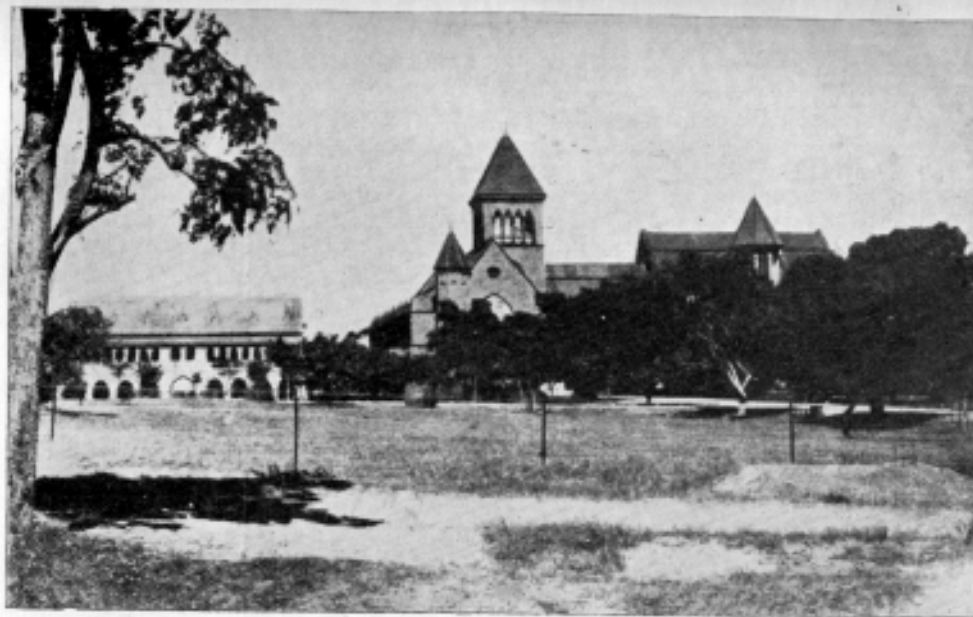
The Institute published a quarterly Bulletin embodying research carried out by its students and staff. In addition, it has brought out a number of publications in different series known as (1) the Deccan College Monographs, (2) Dissertations, (3) Sources of Indo-Aryan Lexicography and (4) the Deccan College Hand Book. The last series is specially useful to students as an introduction to some of the subjects taught in the Institute, e.g. Linguistics, Proto-History, Phonetics, etc., and should interest laymen also.

The Institute's Library possesses one of the finest collections in India on Linguistics, Sociology, Sanskrit Literature, Archaeology and History. Today it contains over 32,500 volumes to which an addition of about 1,000 volumes is made every year.

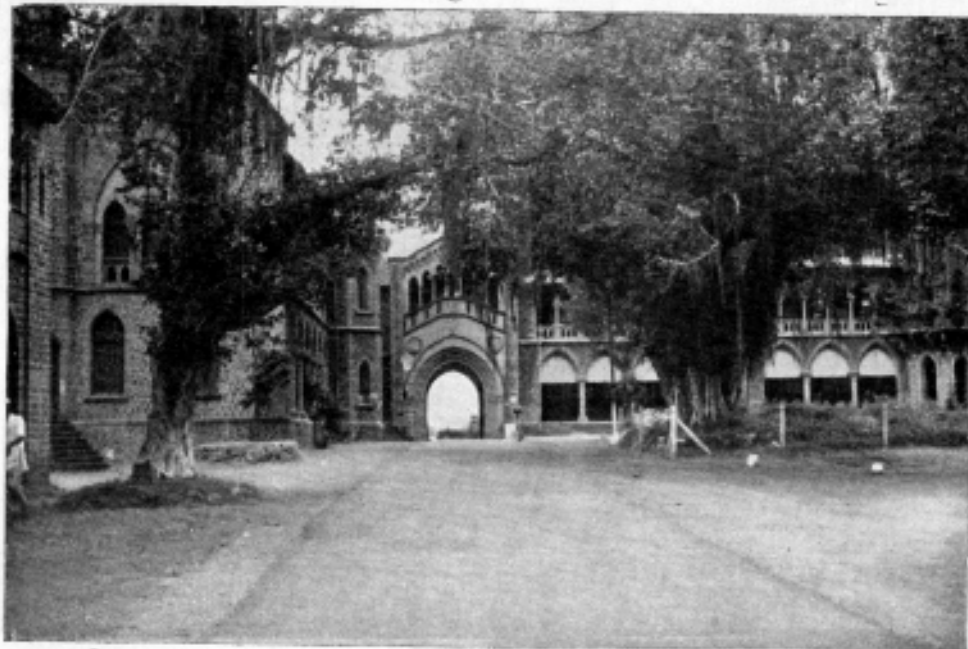
DECCAN COLLEGE STAFF, 1879



Upper row : H. Richardson, V. B. Karandikar, N. V. Chhatre, R. P. Godbole, K. V. Lela,
J. C. Aiken, B. A. Bhagwat, V. D. Puntambekar, V. A. Soboni.
Middle row : G. B. Sahasrabudhe, M. V. Yoshi, J. N. Jalpade, P. R. Bhandarkar, S. A. Natu,
L. G. Bhadbade, H. R. Jhapidar, R. D. Nagarkar, V. A. Patwardhan, M. H. Dastur,
K. S. Rsvadkar, M. G. Karnarkar, J. C. Bharacha, M. A. Musalawala.
Lower row : G. M. Woodrow, G. G. Agarkar, G. K. Apte, G. W. Forrest, F. G. Selby, K. L. Chhatre,
R. G. Bhandarkar, Dastur Hoshang Jamsap, Zalkikar Shastri, Joshi (Latin reader),
Thattie Shastri.



Deccan College, 1896



Deccan College, to-day

(c) *Veda-Shastrottejak Sabha, Poona* (established 1875).—This institution was established in 1875 with the object of encouraging the study of the Vedas, Indian philosophy and Sanskrit literature. Prominent among its founders was the great social worker, Mahadeo Govind Ranade.

The principal activity of the Sabha is to conduct a number of learned examinations in Sanskrit. So far, as many as 2,195 have passed the 28 examinations which it conducts. Students from as far as Banaras in the north and Bangalore in the south appear at these examinations, some of which have been recognised by the Bombay Government.

(d) *The K. R. Cama Oriental Institute Bombay*, (established 1909).—This institute, founded in the memory of the Avestan scholar, Shri K. R. Cama, maintains a good library of oriental books, brings out a journal and other publications and disseminates Avestan lore.

(e) *Bhandarkar Oriental Research Institute, Poona*.—This premier institution of Oriental research in the State was formally inaugurated on 6th July, 1917—the 80th birth-day of Sir Ramkrishna G. Bhandarkar. Some of its important activities are noticed below:—

(i) *The Mahabharata Department*.—The work of the Institute on the monumental critical edition of the *Mahabharata*, carried on with unabated zeal and devotion for the last 37 years, stands in the front rank of the academic enterprises of the century. When completed, it will go down to posterity as a unique achievement of the Institute in the field of organised oriental research. The credit of completing this gigantic literary project under the editorship of Dr. V. S. Sukthankar (1925-1943) and Dr. S. K. Belvalkar (from 1943 onwards) must go as much to the Institute as to the several patrons of the scheme, including among others, the National Government, the State Governments, distinguished Rulers of Indian States and foreign institutions like the British Academy. From 1919 to 1955, the Institute has spent, on the preparation and printing of the Critical Edition, more than Rs. 10,59,390.

(ii) *Manuscript Department*.—In 1918, the Government of Bombay deposited at the Institute for custody and for the use of scholars, their precious collection of over 20,000 Sanskrit and Prakrit manuscripts. A descriptive catalogue of these manuscripts has been under preparation and 16 out of the projected 45 Volumes of the Catalogue have been published already. The Government of Bombay gives Rs. 3,000 as an annual grant for the maintenance of the Department.

(iii) *Publication Department*.—As stated earlier, the management of the Bombay Sanskrit and Prakrit Series was handed over to the Institute by the Bombay Government in 1918. The Publication Department of the Institute has completed all the old pledges of the Government in this Series. The department conducts another series of publications called the Bhandarkar Oriental Series in addition to the Bombay Sanskrit and Prakrit Series and the Government Oriental Series. Another important activity of the Department is the Quarterly Journal called the *Annals* of the Institute, the first number of which was issued

as early as 1919. 35 Volumes of the *Annals* have been published so far. The Government of Bombay gives an annual grant of Rs. 12,000 to the Institute for its Publication Department.

(f) *Dharmakosha Mandal, Wai (established 1920)*.—Dharmakosha Mandal is a branch of the Prajna Pathashala Mandal, Wai. The Mandal has planned and undertaken the editing and publishing of the whole canonical literature of Hinduism. The Dharmakosha, which is one of the main items of its publications, is an encyclopædia of Hindu religious texts arranged in chronological order and classified according to topics and sub-topics. The Mimamsa Kosha, the second item of its publications, is a monumental encyclopædic work edited by the late Swami Kevalanand Saraswati.

(g) *The Tilak Maharashtra Vidyapeeth, Poona*.—This institution was founded in 1921 as a National University. Its most important contribution has been in the field of Sanskrit studies. The Vidyapeeth took up this activity in 1947 and began to conduct classes of Sanskrit and hold examinations in Sanskrit language. The Examinations are held twice a year. There are, in all, four examinations for which special text-books have been prepared and published by the Vidyapeeth. The Education Department has recognised these books for general reading in high schools. About 12,000 students appear every year for these examinations, at about 250 centres established in Bombay State and outside. It is interesting to note that, in spite of the lesser opportunities for the study of Sanskrit that are now available at the high school stage, the desire for a knowledge of Sanskrit language is spreading steadily in the younger generation.

(h) *Kaivalyadhama, Lonavala (established 1924)*.—This institution was founded with the object of organising scientific and literary training and research in Yoga. The scientific research in Yoga requires intelligent trained subjects. In order to supply this want, the G. S. College of Yoga and Cultural Synthesis was established in 1950. This College has been recognised by the Government of Bombay since 1953. Very valuable work in the literary and scientific aspects of Yoga is being carried on by the institution at present.

(i) *The Vaidika Samshodhan Mandal, Poona (established 1928)*.—This institution was established under the auspices of the Tilak Maharashtra Vidyapeeth. Between 1929 and 1955, it has published a critical edition of the *Rigveda*, along with the commentary of Sayanacharya, in five volumes which contain more than 5,300 pages. Editions of *Krishna Yajurveda*, *Srautakosha*, and the principal *Upanishads* are in preparation. The Mandal also conducts a centre for Iranian studies.

(j) *Bharatiya Vidya Bhavan, Bombay (established 1938)*.—Even within the short span of 16 years during which it has been in existence the Bharatiya Vidya Bhavan has become a first-rate centre for oriental studies, not only in this State but in the whole of India. It brings out a number of valuable publications, prominent among which are the Singhi Jain Series and the History and Culture of the Indian People. The latter work has been planned in 10 volumes out of which 4 have been published so far.

(k) *Meemamsa Vidyalyaya, Poona*.—The preservation of the sacrificial system of the Aryans and research in the Meemamsa school of philosophy is the main object of the Vidyalyaya. Meemamsa has provided the maxims of interpretation to Hindu Law and other sciences and to that extent it is a basic science in Sanskrit. This science grew out of the sacrifices in the Brahmanical religion, and hence, a thorough practical knowledge of the Vedic sacrifices is essential for a student of Meemamsa. The Vidyalyaya is the only Institute of its kind in India and imparts practical and theoretical instruction in Meemamsa on the most modern lines. The Vidyalyaya also serves as a centre of religious sacrifices or *Istis*.

(l) *The Swadhyaya Mandal, Pardi (District Surat)*.—The Swadhyaya Mandal was originally established at Oundh, District Satara, in 1918 by the Pandit Satavalekar. It has published editions of *Vaidik* texts and a number of original works. It also conducts quarterly journals in Hindi, Marathi and Gujarati. Besides it conducts *Veda* examinations for which graded courses have been drawn up.

15 (22). *The Revival of Pathashalas*.—The foregoing review will show that the modern scientific method of studying Sanskrit has now been well established in the system of higher education. While this is a welcome feature, it is also a matter for regret that the old *Shastric* tradition is rapidly dying out. The traditional method of studying Sanskrit has such a thoroughness about it that it would be a great cultural loss if it were to disappear altogether. It is this realisation that is responsible for the modern effort to revitalize the *Pathashala* tradition. This is taking shape in three directions:—(1) payment of grant-in-aid to *Pathashalas*; (2) establishment of *Pathashalas* on improved lines, and (3) recognition to the diplomas awarded by *Pathashalas* and provision of increased opportunities of employment to their students.

(a) *Payment of Grant-in-aid to Pathashalas*.—As stated earlier in Chapter I, the indigenous schools were generally ignored in this State. Consequently, the numerous traditional *Pathashalas* that were voluntarily conducted by the people were never taken any notice of by the Department. The *Pathashalas*, in their turn, were anxious to preserve their tradition without interference and were inclined to avoid, rather than seek, Government aid. Moreover, the financial support given to them by the religious minded public and the rulers of the old States was fairly adequate so that they did not keenly feel the need to seek State aid. But things began to change considerably with the opening of the twentieth century and especially after the First World War. The *Pathashalas* were now required to contend with a series of adverse factors: an increasing dearth of capable teachers due to the weakening of the old tradition; rising costs of living; failure to attract the more intelligent student; and continued drying up of religious and charitable support. Hence an attempt to seek State aid began to be made by the *Pathashalas*. At the same time, Government had also become alive to the need of recognising the valuable contribution of these hoary institutions,* and had adopted a policy of treating them as “special institutions” under the Grant-in-Aid

*The recommendations of the Conference of Orientalists held at Simla in 1911 were largely responsible for a significant change in the policy of Government.

Code. State aid to *Pathashalas* thus became a significant but minor feature of the educational system in the twentieth century. No detailed rules for grant-in-aid to *Pathashalas* were, however, drawn up and the Code of 1911 merely provided that they should be regarded as special institutions and that each application for grant should be treated on its own merits, due regard being paid to the funds available and the general efficiency of the institution. This policy was also continued by later Codes.

The following table shows the number of *Pathashalas* and their students and the available statistics of their expenditure:—

TABLE No. 15 (9)
Pathashalas (1911-1947)

Year.	No. of Institutions.	No. of Students.	Grants Paid.	Total Expenditure of the <i>Pathashalas</i> (available on the records.)
1	2	3	4	5
			Rs.	Rs.
1911-12	35	1,168	Not available	Not available
1916-17	52	2,352	Not available	Not available
1921-22	55	2,995	10,218	33,470
1926-27	58	2,158	10,223	44,025
1931-32	57	2,585	8,791	48,905
1936-37	56	1,965	2,025	43,787
1941-42	56	1,751	1,810	34,890
1946-47	38	1,566	2,515	37,536

It will be seen from the above table that the aid given to *Pathashalas* was never adequate and that it dwindled to insignificant proportions, as a result of financial stringency, by 1936-37. The problem was, therefore, taken up by the Second Popular Ministry which laid down a more liberal policy on the subject. The following statistics speak for themselves:—

TABLE No. 15 (10)
Pathashalas (1947-55)

Year.	No. of Institutions.	No. of Students.	Grants Paid.	Total Expenditure of the <i>Pathashalas</i> (available on the records.)
1	2	3	4	5
			Rs.	Rs.
1946-47	...	38	2,515	37,536
1951-52	...	38	5,425	79,656
1953-54	...	37	8,891	1,69,572
1954-55	...	32	12,250	1,54,066

(b) *Establishment of Pathashalas on Improved Lines.*—The old tradition was that *Pathashalas* would be conducted in association with *maths* and temples or by individual *Shastries*. It was soon realised that, if the institutions were to survive, their management must now be taken over by registered societies, public trusts, universities and State Governments. Several good institutions have come into existence as a result of this trend. Among them mention may be made of the Baroda Sanskrit Mahavidyalaya which was established by the Gaekwar in 1915 and which has since been transferred to the Baroda University; the Mumbadevi Sanskrit Mahavidyalaya which is conducted by the Bharatiya Vidya Bhavan; the Sanskrit college managed by the Tilak Maharashtra Vidyapeeth; and the Prajna Pathashala, Wai, founded by Swami Kevalanand Saraswati.

As a result of the merger of the old Indian States, the Department had to take over 8 *Pathashalas* which they used to conduct in the past. Of these, 5 were closed and only 3 were functioning in 1954-55. The expenditure incurred on these Government *Pathashalas* was Rs. 10,465 in 1954-55.

(c) *Provision of Increased Opportunities of Employment to Pathashala Students.*—In the old days, the students trained in *Pathashalas* lived as priests or learned *pundits* on the general support of the community and did not desire to be employed in public institutions. The State helped them by grants of land or by cash grants in the form of *Dakshina*. With the modern changes in social and economic conditions, however, these old methods were either weakened or eliminated and the need to provide some economic incentives to *Pathashala* students began to be felt. In 1914-15, a practice of giving personal allowances from State funds to *pundits* of established repute was started, but it had to be given up very early on financial and other grounds. The problem, therefore, remained almost unattended to till 1937.

The Popular Ministry, however, has adopted some important measures to encourage *Pathashala* students. Among these, the following may be mentioned:—

- (1) Recognition of Shastric qualifications at various levels from the S. S. C. Examination to the M. A. Degree;
- (2) Appointment of *Shastris* in Government arts colleges; and
- (3) Encouragement to the appointment of persons with *Shastric* qualifications in non-Government colleges and secondary schools.

In spite of these efforts to stem the tide it has to be admitted that the *Pathashala* tradition is still sinking. With a view to investigating the problem, therefore, Government appointed a Committee under the Chairmanship of Dr. S. K. Belvalkar to advise them on the manner in which *Pathashala* education could be revitalised (1950).

V Facilities for the Education of Displaced Persons

15 (23). *Education of Displaced Persons.*—The partition of India in 1947 led to the sudden displacement of a large Hindu population from Pakistan. In this State its particular aspect was the large influx of displaced persons from Sind. During the last eight years, Government has

striven hard to help the education of displaced persons as an important part of their rehabilitation in this State. Among the measures adopted for this purpose the following may be mentioned:—

(1) Several technical difficulties arose in the admission of the children of the displaced persons to the educational institutions in this State, because leaving or eligibility certificates and other relevant documents were not available from the schools and colleges in Pakistan. These difficulties were overcome by suitable legislative changes or administrative orders.

(2) Assistance was given to displaced persons to establish educational institutions for their children. Prominent among them is the Jai Hind College, Bombay, and the National College, Bandra. Besides, several secondary and other schools started by the displaced persons were recognised and assisted.

(3) A number of primary schools for the displaced persons were organised and suitable additions to the Departmental staff were made for the purpose.

(4) Financial assistance was given, according to the merits of each case, in the form of loans, remission of fees (total or partial) and grants for the purchase of books, apparatus and stationery.

The assistance actually given under these schemes between 1947-48 and 1949-50 is shown below:—

Year.	Loans.		Free concession.	
	No. of Students.	Amount.	No. of Students.	Amount.
		Rs.		Rs.
1947-48	...	4	900	...
1948-49	...	311	1,73,673	2,107
1949-50	...	322	2,04,911	2,246

By 1949-50, thirty secondary schools were established for displaced persons. They were all recognised and aided by Government. In addition, 119 primary schools were established for them and a special staff of one Deputy Educational Inspector, and four Assistant Deputy Educational Inspectors was appointed for their inspection.

In 1950-51, a new scheme of assistance was drawn up. According to its terms, the following educational concessions were given to displaced persons:—

(1) Free Primary Education and cash grants for books, stationery etc., not exceeding Rs. 5 per head per annum, subject to the condition that it is not given to more than 50 per cent of the total number of displaced pupils enrolled in primary classes in the State. Children of displaced persons earning more than Rs. 100 per month were not eligible for these cash grants.

(2) Exemption from payment of fees in standard V to VIII and cash grants at Rs. 20 in Standards V and VI and Rs. 30 in Standards VII and VIII in ordinary types of secondary schools. This concession was to be

given subject to the condition that the number of pupils receiving these benefits did not exceed 50 per cent of the total enrolment of displaced pupils in these classes and subject to a further condition that the concessions were not admissible to children of persons earning more than Rs. 100 per month.

(3) Exemption from payment of fees and cash grants up to Rs. 40 in high school standards of ordinary types of secondary schools provided the income of the guardians did not exceed Rs. 150 per month. The concession of fees and cash grants was restricted to 40 per cent. of the total enrolment of displaced pupils in these classes.

(4) Poor and deserving displaced students reading in colleges were given stipends at a rate varying from Rs. 30 to Rs. 60 per month, provided they secured the requisite percentage of marks as laid down in the scheme. The following table shows the assistance actually given under this scheme since 1950-51:—

TABLE No. 15 (11)

Assistance for the Education of Displaced Persons (1950-55)

	1950-51.	1951-52.	1952-53.	1953-54.	1954-55.
(1) Concession at the Primary Stage.	Rs. 3,754	15,227	51,440	51,907	53,837
(2) Concession at the Secondary Stage.	Rs. 4,55,932	8,00,000	8,22,365	5,96,511	6,16,609
(3) Loans at Collegiate Stage.	Rs. 62,000	45,480	18,780	...*	...*
(4) Stipends at Collegiate Stage.	Rs. 2,340	39,736	50,040	52,956	51,690
(5) Secondary Schools assisted during the year.	39	40	38	41	39
(6) Primary Schools maintained during the year.	149	123	108	108	117
(7) No. of Displaced Teachers in service.	366	616	712	1,224	1,202

* The Schemes of Loans was totally discontinued in 1953-54.

VI Vocational Guidance

15 (24). *Vocational Guidance Bureau*.—Vocational guidance plays a very important part in the educational system of advanced countries like U.K. and U.S.A. By guiding boys and girls along proper channels at proper stages in their careers, a large number of individuals are prevented from becoming misfits in life and a very valuable contribution is made

towards increasing national efficiency. In India, vocational guidance was, until recently, a very much neglected field. As the Government Resolution setting up the Bureau pointed out, "One of the greatest drawbacks of our educational system is the complete lack of a machinery to disseminate information relating to various trades and professions available and to guide pupils in the selection of their occupation." It was to fill this gap that the Bureau was created in 1950. This was the first Bureau to be set up by any State in India and during the last five years it has established itself as one of the most important and pioneer institutions in this field in the country as a whole.

When the Bureau started functioning it had two objectives before it—short-term and long-term. For scientific vocational guidance it is necessary to have psychological tests properly standardized to suit Indian conditions. There must also be adequate data in each school regarding the pupils' past achievement. The long-term objectives, therefore, included the devising of psychological tests and the introduction of the cumulative record card in schools. While this was being done, the Bureau concentrated on the immediate objective of collection and dissemination of occupational information.

The first task of the Bureau, therefore, was the collection of occupational information. This was done as carefully and as thoroughly as possible in the first year and steps have since been taken to collect further information continuously, so that the occupational information available in the Bureau is as comprehensive and as up to date as possible. Similarly, steps have also been taken to disseminate the information collected in a variety of ways—through personal and postal guidance, career conferences, exhibitions, films, radio talks, lectures, pamphlets, press articles, notices to educational institutions, etc. During the last four years, such information has been supplied to about 27,000 individuals either in person or through post. 13 pamphlets and 41 monographs have been published. Career conferences for pupils who have passed the S.S.C. Examination and their parents are being annually organised in 26 towns of the State. Besides, career conferences for university students are also being organised in co-operation with all the universities of the State.

In order that guidance may reach as large a number of pupils as possible, lectures on vocational guidance are given to the teachers undergoing training at the Secondary Training Colleges in Bombay, Kolhapur, Belgaum, Poona, Baroda and Ahmedabad as well as to the students of the Graduates' Basic Training Centres at Dharwar and Dhulia. In addition, short-term courses for headmasters and teachers are also organised from time to time. So far, nine such courses have been organised and about 450 teachers (many of whom were headmasters) were trained. A refresher course for career-masters was also organised recently and was attended by 43 career-masters. A training course for professors—on the same lines as that of the career-masters' course but dealing with the problems faced by college students—was conducted in December, 1952, and was attended by 18 professors from different parts of the State. The Bureau makes an attempt to keep in touch with the trained career-masters

through a bi-monthly Newsletter which is circulated to all of them. In a sense, therefore, each career-master functions almost as a branch of the Bureau.

In order to realise its long-term objectives, the Bureau has devised a cumulative record card for use in secondary schools. This has been approved by Government and is being very largely adopted by the schools. Similarly, the Bureau has carried out experimental studies in different types of schools and colleges with a view to establishing the validity of the psychological tests for purposes of guidance and selection. In a number of fields—such as engineering, architecture, commerce and applied arts, their validity has been sufficiently established and these tests are, therefore, being used to guide pupils in the selection of their careers as well as to enable the schools and colleges concerned to select their students. The Bureau has also helped several firms to select their personnel.

It is obvious that a single Bureau of this type cannot be expected to cope with the magnitude of the problem and that it is necessary to establish other Bureaux in different parts of the State in order that proper vocational guidance may be available to all students. This can only be done if a sufficiently large number of qualified teachers becomes available. With a view to training such personnel, the Bureau has recently organised a one-year diploma course.

VII *Libraries*

15 (25). *Libraries in Pre-British Period.*—Prior to the advent of British rule, libraries were not entirely unknown in this State, although books were few and rare and newspapers or magazines were totally absent. However, some ancient religious institutions like *maths* or temples, families with old literary tradition, and learned men often collected manuscripts of books for their personal use or for the use of their students. Some of these collections were impressively large and important and it may even be possible to call them the "libraries" of the period. But such libraries were altogether few and there was no organisation about them.

15 (26). *Library Movement Begins (1818-55).*—The modern public library is, therefore, mainly a creation of the British administration. It was as a result of British influence that the printing of books began in India and newspapers and magazines came to be published. With the introduction of these reforms, the foundation for the starting of public libraries was laid. The lead in the matter was almost always taken by influential British officers—Collectors and Judges—who felt that public libraries should be organised for the spread of information. They were supported, in this endeavour by enlightened leaders of Indian opinion who helped in collecting funds and in popularising the new institutions by overcoming the natural prejudices and suspicions of the people against the actions of the alien Government. The movement, therefore, made a good beginning, in the earlier half of the nineteenth century, in the City of Bombay and the headquarters of the districts. The Bombay Native Education Society which was in office from 1823 to 1840 recognised the importance of establishing and maintaining public libraries as a means

of educating the people and tried to assist them by grants in the form of cash and books. At this time, the Society was the main agency for publishing books in Indian languages and hence the grant of books which it used to make was of great assistance to the libraries of this period. The same policy was continued by the Board of Education which was in office from 1840 to 1855, and when the Education Department was created, there were 22 libraries in the State as a whole, 10 in the City of Bombay and 12 in District Headquarters, viz., at Ahmednagar, Poona, Sholapur, Belgaum, Satara, Ratnagiri, Savantwadi, Thana, Surat, Baroda, Ahmedabad, and Nasik.

15 (27). *Library Development (1855-1901).*—The Education Department continued the earlier policy of assisting public libraries. The Officers of the Department visited these institutions while on tour and gave useful guidance and even individual help. The Department had, at its disposal, a fund for the encouragement of literature in Indian languages. Books were purchased from this fund and given to public libraries registered with the Department. Copies of the Government Gazette and other publications meant for the people were also supplied free of charge. But unfortunately there was no special grant for assistance to public libraries and the fund for the encouragement of literature in Indian languages was very limited. It did not, in fact, exceed Rs. 15,000 at any time. Hence the financial assistance given to public libraries by the Department was not material and the libraries also were not very eager to obtain privilege of "recognition and registration" by the Department. It may, therefore, be said that after the initial start had been given to the movement by Government officers, the public libraries were left to grow on their own, subject only to a nominal Departmental supervision exercised in return for an equally nominal help in the form of books and publications.

This absence of Departmental assistance was fortunately compensated for popular enthusiasm for public libraries which went on continually increasing during this period. With the spread of education there was a continuous increase in the number of persons who had developed the reading habit. Books and newspapers became common and available at comparatively low prices owing to the introduction of the printing press. Hence in all places with a fairly large population, a sufficient number of persons who were able and willing to subscribe for the establishment and maintenance of a public library soon became available. Consequently, public libraries were established and maintained in all important places in the State before the close of the nineteenth century. As stated before, they were mostly maintained by subscriptions paid by the members. But some of the libraries were fortunate enough to collect large funds or to secure handsome donations from rich patrons. Some of the public libraries of this period, therefore, had fairly decent collections of books and even buildings of their own.

The statistics of the libraries are not fully available for this period. The Department did not try to recognise or assist the large public libraries in cities like Bombay or Poona because it naturally felt that they were sufficiently strong to develop on their own. The statistics about them, therefore, are not available in the Departmental Reports. Besides, as stated

above, not every library was registered with the Department because the privilege of registration was not sufficiently attractive. Subject to these two reservations, however, the following statistics of public libraries collected from the Departmental Reports will indicate the magnitude of the movement to some extent.

TABLE No. 15 (12)

Public Libraries in the Bombay State (1855-1901)

Year.				No. of Public Libraries registered with the Department.
1855-56	22
1865-66	68
1870-71	155
1881-82	85
1886-87	110
1891-92	128
1896-97	134
1900-01	122

N. B.—Statistics from Sind are excluded.

15 (28). *Library Development (1901-37).*—Contrary to the objectives of the original promoters of the movement, a new political factor began to overshadow it towards the end of the nineteenth century. Some of the early British officials who helped to found the movement were actuated by philanthropic and cultural considerations and desired merely to spread Western science and literature among the people of India. But the majority of the official promoters looked upon the movement as a means of bringing the people closer to Government, of informing the public about the various good things that Government was doing, and, in short, of consolidating British rule in India through this means of Adult Education. But as an educated public opinion began to grow, these hopes failed to materialise and on the contrary a national sentiment began to be developed through the public libraries. This became particularly noticeable after the establishment of the Indian National Congress in 1885 and especially in the regime of Lord Curzon (1899-1907) when public opinion was strongly aroused against Government. The management of several libraries now passed in the hands of younger people who subscribed to nationalist papers and purchased nationalist literature. The premises of libraries were often used for nationalist meetings and some of them became active centres of nationalist propaganda. These developments were very natural and in the right direction. But the officials of this

period took a panicky view of these trends. They complained that the libraries were mixing politics with education; that they were purchasing "literature of a harmful character", and that "their premises were being utilised for meetings at which sedition was openly talked." They, therefore, felt that these political influences had to be weeded out with a firm hand and hence the following rules for the registration of public libraries were promulgated in 1909 and it was laid down that Government assistance shall not be given to any library which did not conform with them:—

Rules for the conduct of registered or aided Public Libraries
(G. R., E. D., No. 2037 of 14-10-1909)

1. There shall be a Managing Committee responsible for the administration of the Library, with a Secretary to carry on correspondence.
2. Authenticated lists shall be kept of all books, papers, etc. in the Library.
3. A list of the periodicals and books subscribed for or added to the library shall be submitted each year on the 1st of April to the Director of Public Instruction.
4. No periodicals or books which have been notified to the Committee by the Director of Public Instruction as objectionable shall be added to or retained in the Library.
5. The Library shall not be used for any political meeting, nor for any other proceedings which are likely to create a feeling of disaffection towards the Government or to offend the religious susceptibilities of any community. No public meeting of any other kind shall be held in it without the previous permission of the authority empowered by the Director of Public Instruction to grant such permission. In cases when any doubt arises, the decision of the Director of Public Instruction shall be final.
6. The Library shall be open to inspection by any officer of Government whom the Director of Public Instruction may empower to inspect.

Quite naturally, several libraries refused to get themselves registered under these rules, especially in view of the fact that Government assistance was nominal and mostly restricted to the free supply of its publications. Government, therefore, issued a circular to all its officers stating that no Government servant should be a member of or subscribe in aid of an unregistered library. This was a hard financial blow, but several libraries withstood it and still refused registration, although a fairly large number tried to remain on the right side of the law and sought recognition. It is only the registered libraries about which the Departmental Reports supply statistics. These cannot, therefore, be taken as a complete record of the situation; but the following statistics collected from the

Departmental Reports of this period will show how vigorously the movement was growing in spite of the unhelpful policy of Government:—

TABLE NO. 15 (13)

Public Libraries in the Bombay State (1902-1928)

Year.				No. of Public Libraries registered with the Department.
1902-03	124
1908-09	120
1909-10	51*
1913-14	232
1921-22	301
1926-27	333

N. B.—(1) Statistics for Sind are excluded.

*(2) Regarding the fall in 1909-10, the Director of Public Instruction wrote: "In October 1909 Government were pleased to issue new rules for the conduct of registered or aided public libraries, in consequence of which the number of those registered in my office has been considerably reduced."—Report, 1909-10, Para. 9.

With the transfer of Education to Indian Ministers in 1921, conflicts over this policy began to ensue because the Indian Ministers were naturally sympathetic with the managements of the libraries and did not desire to exercise political control over them. The Department also complained that the supervision of public libraries had become more a 'police' than an 'educational' matter under the existing rules. Government, therefore, transferred the subject of registration of libraries to the Home Department (Political) (which was still a reserved subject with the Government) and the authority to register the libraries was vested in the District Magistrates.† The Education Department, therefore, ceased to have any connection with the public libraries since 1928-29. This situation continued till 1937 when Provincial Autonomy was introduced and the Home Department itself was transferred to an Indian Minister. The subject of Public Libraries, therefore, came back to the Education Department in 1938 in the regime of the first Popular Ministry.

15 (29). *Library Development (1937-55)*.—The First Popular Ministry decided to develop a regular movement of public libraries in the State. For this purpose, Government appointed a Library Development Committee (1939-40) with Shri A. A. A. Fyzee, as Chairman. The Committee was requested to explore the possibilities of a Central Library in Bombay and three Regional Libraries at Poona, Ahmedabad and Dharwar and of co-ordinating all these four libraries with a net-work of town and village libraries organised all over the State. The Committee recommended a plan which was to cover the entire State with a net-work of

† G. R., E. D., No. 3190 of 20-11-1928.

libraries in six stages; at stage I, copyright libraries were to be set up at stage II, public libraries were to be set up at district places; at stage III, libraries were to be started not only at taluka towns but at towns of a comparable size as well; and at stages IV-VI, libraries were to be extended to villages.

The First Popular Ministry did not remain in office to take any action on the above report. But knowing that the library movement had been purely urban in character during the last hundred years and feeling that the development of libraries in villages ought to be given top priority, it had already decided to organise a system of Reading Rooms and Libraries for rural areas as a part of its programme of Social Education. New rules for the recognition of such libraries were framed in 1941.* They are totally free from all political considerations and sanction recurring and non-recurring grants to Village Reading Rooms and Libraries subject to the condition that they were run on certain educational and democratic principles. The amount of the grants was small no doubt—these were restricted to Rs. 50 for big villages and Rs. 30 to small villages†—but for the neglected rural areas, even this meagre assistance came as a blessing and a very large number of villages took advantage of them as the following statistics will show:—

TABLE No. 15 (14)

Village Libraries and Reading Rooms in Bombay State (1941-1955)

Year.	No. of Village Libraries and Reading Rooms.	Total amount of Grant-in-aid sanctioned from Government Funds.
		Rs.
1941-42	... 762	22,000
1945-46	... 1,969	26,000
1946-47	... 2,390	34,300
1947-48	... 2,900	50,000
1948-49	... 3,247	56,476
1949-50	... 3,567	63,665
1950-51	... 3,823	61,761
1951-52	... 4,085	63,393
1952-53	... 4,355	67,961
1953-54	... 4,537	64,399
1954-55	... 5,978	1,55,494

*G. R., E. D., No. 6805 of 29-8-1941. These were amended by G. R., E. D., No. 6805 of 21-2-1944; G. R., E. & I. D., No. 6805 of 4-10-1947; G. R., E. & I. D., No. 6805 of 25-6-1949; G. R., E. D., No. SEM 2454 of 22-2-1955; and G. R., E. D., No. SEN 2455 of 21-6-1955.

† These have been raised to Rs. 75 with effect from 1954-55.

Action on the recommendations of the Fyzee Committee relating to the development of urban public libraries began to be taken when the Second Popular Ministry assumed office. In 1946, Government created the post of Curator of Libraries. The principal duty assigned to this post was to organise, develop, and supervise a regular modern movement of public libraries in all areas of the State. In 1947-48, three posts of Assistant Curator of Libraries were created to supervise and guide the library movement in the three linguistic regions of the State and in 1951, a fourth post of the same rank was created to look after the Central Library at Baroda which used to be maintained by the old Baroda State and which had come over to Bombay as a result of the merger. Thus a regular functional inspectorate for the organisation and development of a library movement in the State as a whole has been created during the last decade.

The management of the Central Library has been entrusted to the Bombay Branch of the Royal Asiatic Society, which completed 150 years of its existence in November, 1954. By a Trust Deed the institution receives from Government a grant-in-aid of Rs. 60,000 per annum. The Regional Libraries at Poona, Ahmedabad and Dharwar are managed by the City General Library, Poona; Gujarat Vidya Peeth, Ahmedabad; and the Vidya Vardhak Sangh, Dharwar, respectively. The Regional Libraries are eligible for a grant-in-aid whose maximum was first fixed at Rs. 13,000 per annum and which has been raised to Rs. 15,000 from 1954-55. The District and Taluka or Peta Libraries have also been brought under a regular system of inspection and grant-in-aid during the last 10 years. The District Libraries receive a grant-in-aid from Government whose maximum was fixed at Rs. 4,000 per annum in the past but it has been raised to Rs. 6,000 with effect from 1954-55. The Taluka or Peta Libraries also are paid grant-in-aid subject to a maximum of Rs. 450 per annum.

The merger of the Baroda State with Bombay created peculiar problems in the field of libraries. The Baroda State used to maintain an excellent Central Library at Baroda. Under the new plan it could at best be treated as a District Library and given a grant-in-aid of Rs. 4,000. But this would have crippled the finances of this institution and an excellent library would have been ruined. Government, therefore, decided to conduct it, as a special case, under its own auspices. Besides, the Village Libraries in the old Baroda State were aided at rates which were more liberal than those which prevailed in Bombay. It was also felt that these institutions would be adversely affected if the lower rates of grant-in-aid sanctioned in the Bombay rules were to be made applicable to them all at once. They were, therefore, aided at the rate of Rs. 100 per annum till 1952-53 and at Rs. 75 per annum in 1953-54. From 1954-55 the common rules of grant-in-aid have been made applicable to all the Village Libraries in the State. Similarly, the old Baroda State used to give grants-in-aid to a fairly large number of Town Libraries and special libraries for women and children. These were aided till 1951-52 by the Bombay State and then the grants were discontinued on grounds of financial stringency.

Two other developments of this period deserve notice. The first is the organisation of Copyright Libraries. In 1948, Government amended

Section 9 (3) of the Press and Registration of Books Act, 1867. Under the provisions of the amended Section the Central Library at Bombay receives two copies of every book printed in the Bombay State direct from the printer and similarly each Regional Copyright Library receives one copy of each book printed in the regional language concerned. It is a responsibility of the Copyright Libraries to have these books classified according to any recognised scheme and to prepare card catalogues arranged according to authors, titles and subjects. The management of these Copyright Libraries is entrusted to private bodies having libraries of their own so that the maximum library facilities are made available to the general public at a minimum cost to Government.

The second development is the organisation of Library Associations as non-official agencies for the promotion of the movement. There are, at present, four Library Associations functioning in the State as under:—

- (1) The Maharashtra Library Association, Poona.
- (2) The Gujarat Library Association, Ahmedabad.
- (3) The Karnatak Library Association, Dharwar.
- (4) The Bombay Library Association, Bombay.

The principal functions of these Associations are (1) to publish journals and bibliographies; (2) to conduct training classes for librarians; (3) to maintain contacts with libraries and librarians; (4) to hold conferences; and (5) generally to take all measures calculated to diffuse library-mindedness among the public.

The following table shows the progress of this work during the last few years:—

TABLE No. 15 (15)

Training of Librarians

Name of the Library Association.	Number of Successful Students.				
	1950-51.	1951-52.	1952-53.	1953-54.	1954-55.
1. Bombay Library Association.	...	23	17	16	16
2. Maharashtra Library Association.	44	44	40	40	31
3. Gujarat Library Association.	23	25	23	...	17
4. Karnatak Library Association.	11	15	9

The Bombay Library Association publishes a bulletin called "The Bombay Library Bulletin", the Gujarat Library Association publishes a bulletin called *Pustakalaya* (in Gujarati) and the Maharashtra Library Association publishes a similar bulletin in Marathi called *Sahitya-Sahakar*.

The following statistics show the extent of the library movement (other than village libraries the statistics of which have already been given) and the expenditure incurred thereon since 1951:—

TABLE No. 15 (16)

Activities of Public Libraries

Library.	No. of Readers.	No. of Visitors.	No. of Books issued.
<i>Central Library</i>			
1951-52	1,104	2,46,500	1,11,236
1952-53	1,534	2,74,050	1,11,866
1953-54	1,350	2,57,047	1,15,000
1954-55	1,130	2,59,851	47,409
<i>Regional Libraries</i>			
1951-52	15,596	2,19,426	1,03,702
1952-53	23,076	2,07,524	1,10,907
1953-54	23,150	1,83,692	1,11,337
1954-55	12,787	2,18,320	1,12,946
<i>District Libraries</i>			
1951-52	2,07,893	17,86,101	5,90,370
1952-53	1,87,229	22,92,774	8,53,953
1953-54	26,079	24,20,709	6,33,816
1954-55	32,302	28,76,516	5,84,785
<i>Taluka and Peta Libraries</i>			
1951-52	62,803	16,69,222	10,42,080
1952-53	65,283	30,73,611	10,32,509
1953-54	59,998	51,71,989	9,49,592
1954-55	56,142	54,48,288	10,12,976

TABLE No. 15 (17)

Public Libraries and Grants-in-aid made to them, etc. (1946-47 to 1954-55)

Year.	No. of Libraries.					Amount of Grants paid to Libraries.					Expenditure on old Baroda Libraries.				Other Expenditure.				Total expenditure on Library Development.
	Central Library Bombay.	Regional Libraries.	District Libraries.	Taluka and Peta Libraries.	Total number of Libraries.	Central Library Bombay.	Regional Libraries.	District Libraries.	Taluka and Peta Libraries.	Total.	Amounts of grants paid to Village Libraries in former Baroda State.	Expenditure on Central Library at Baroda.	Total.	Expenditure on establishments of Curators and Asstt. Curators of Libraries.	Grants to Library Associations in the Bombay State.	Non-recurring expenditure for building, etc.	Total.		
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	
1946-47	1	3	4	30,000	30,000	60,000	6,690	6,690	66,690	
1947-48	1	3	16	..	20	65,000	50,000	31,000	..	1,46,000	15,600	15,601	1,61,601	
1948-49	1	3	16	112	132	37,000	38,000	59,750	50,574	1,85,324	48,860	48,866	2,34,190	
1949-50	1	3	20	163	187	37,000	38,000	81,839	73,455	2,30,294	57,417	57,417	2,87,711	
1950-51	1	3	22	227	253	60,000	38,000	79,740	100,382	2,78,122	58,741	75,523	1,34,264	68,914	7,000	..	75,914	4,88,800	
1951-52	1	3	22	230	256	60,000	36,000	73,984	98,709	2,68,693	59,729	53,548	1,13,277	80,357	6,570	7,173	94,100	4,76,070	
1952-53	1	3	22	231	257	60,000	31,500	69,041	1,00,704	2,61,245	43,132	38,944	82,076	75,640	2,350	..	77,996	4,21,317	
1953-54	1	3	21	229	254	60,000	36,000	68,363	93,787	2,63,150	58,793	37,665	96,458	72,137	3,000	..	75,137	4,34,745	
1954-55	1	3	22	229	255	60,000	38,528	1,16,453	1,11,036	3,26,017	..	39,804	39,804	73,587	4,900	..	78,487	4,44,908	

VIII Text-Books

15 (30). *School Texts* (1823-55).—When the Bombay Native Education Society decided to start the new type of primary and secondary schools one of the major difficulties it had to contend with, was the dearth of school texts. The position of the English schools was a little better because books from the United Kingdom could be imported and used although they were not quite suited to Indian conditions. But in respect of primary schools no books of any type were available and the Society was compelled to have suitable text-books prepared in the different Indian languages spoken in the State, to print and publish them, and also to make them readily available to teachers and students by organising book depots. As stated earlier in Chapter I, this work was carried out with great zeal by the Society and the same policy was continued by the Board of Education.

15 (31). *Howard's contribution*.—When the Department of Education was created in 1855, the general position in respect of school texts was still far from happy in spite of the pioneer work which had been done in the field for about three decades. A fairly large number of books had been prepared for use in schools, no doubt. But it was being realised that they were not quite satisfactory. "Too often they had been composed originally without reference to Indian needs or circumstances, and by men who were not school teachers. Their translators and adapters also in not a few cases wanted actual experience of the practical art of teaching. The books were not graded and their contents lent themselves to the fatal mechanical memorization which had been inherited from the older indigenous system." No alternative agency had appeared on the scene and the Department was compelled, just as the Bombay Native Education Society had been thirty years previously, to undertake the preparation, printing, publication and sale of school books. Moreover, the difficulties and magnitude of the task had increased immensely because a large development of the educational system was then being contemplated.

The work was, therefore, taken up in right earnest by Howard. In English, a Scotch series of reading-books was then in use. Howard found that it was "ill-suited to native boys" and had several "defects of plan and execution." He, therefore, compiled a series of English reading-books to replace them. In a short time, these books became so popular that, besides being largely used in the schools of the State, they were also carried to Lahore, Delhi, Lucknow and Nagpur. He also brought out reading series in Marathi and Gujarati. The former was prepared by Major Candy and consisted of six* books which were prepared between 1857-1861; and the latter was prepared by Messrs. Hope and Peile between 1857 and 1860 and consisted of seven books. Howard also started the work of the Kannada and Sindhi series although their publication was completed only after he left.†

*A seventh book was added in 1896.

† Private enterprise appeared in the field of English books very early and hence Departmental books for secondary schools had a short vogue. But those in the field of Primary Education continued for a long time and it is their future history that is dealt with here.

The four primary series mentioned above were also pronounced to be "a great success." In tone, scope, matter and general get-up the combination was unequalled anywhere in India and in itself constituted an eloquent testimony of the thoroughness and range* of Primary Education in Bombay. A Committee for the revision of text-books appointed by Government of India in 1877 bestowed great praise on the Gujarati series and recommended it as a model to other States. The Marathi series was also praised very greatly and suggested for adoption with suitable local modifications, in the Marathi areas of the Central Provinces (now Madhya Pradesh) by a Revision Committee of that State. The Kannada books were also consulted by a similar Committee in Mysore. It may, therefore, be generally concluded that the Bombay reading series for primary schools was of a high quality as compared with any other series prepared at this period.

In addition to this preparation of the reading series, Howard made two other significant contributions in this field. The first was the organisation of a regular Book Department. In 1855, there was only one "Depository of School Books" maintained by the Board of Education and its annual sales amounted to Rs. 5,000 for English books and Rs. 20,000 for books in Indian languages. In order to make the Departmental books readily available to the teachers and pupils, Howard organised a Book Department in 1857 under a Curator. It consisted of a central depot at Bombay, principal branch-depots at Ahmedabad, Poona and Belgaum and a large number of district branch-depots (which were practically book-shops) maintained by the teachers of Government schools. As the profession of book-sellers was not organised in all parts of the State till the beginning of the present century, this Book Department served a useful purpose for a very long time.†

Howard's second contribution was to reduce the price of text-books very materially. Under the Board of Education students were not generally required to purchase text-books and the usual practice was to supply every school with several sets of the books prescribed. In 1856-57 Government issued an order to the effect that this free supply of books should cease, except in the case of indigent pupils. Howard, therefore, felt that the prices of books must be reduced very considerably and he actually succeeded in reducing the prices of most books by about 25 to 50 per cent. in spite of the fact that their quality had been materially improved.

Howard was not satisfied by bringing out the reading series only. Assisted by enthusiasts like Hope and Candy, he had a number of books prepared on other subjects as well. "To enumerate all such books which have been produced since 1855, would be a tedious business. It is sufficient to say that, in the four vernaculars, histories, geographies, grammars, maps, etc., were forthcoming. Most of these were of undoubted utility

in their time.* It will be recalled that such books had already been prepared by the Bombay Native Education Society and the Board of Education. Howard and his successors merely kept up and amplified that tradition. But unfortunately, these other books did not continue to be in use for a long time. Private effort soon appeared in this field and as more recent and better books produced by non-official agencies became available, the Departmental books fell into disuse and were discontinued.

15 (32). *The Primary Reading Series (1865-1939)*.—The reading series, however, survived for a very long time. They were revised on several occasions between 1865 and 1905 and especially by the Text-Book Committee of 1873-74. But the fundamental plan of the original readers was not tampered with. "In this respect," wrote J. G. Covernton, "their very excellence proved a stumbling block, since though official revisions took place from time to time after 1877, few revisers ventured to suggest a radical procedure as regards the matter. The books were, in fact, in some danger of becoming Educational Scriptures".†

In the drive for educational reconstruction organised by Curzon in the early years of this century, a great emphasis was laid on the preparation of suitable text-books. In 1903, therefore, the Government of Bombay appointed a Committee under the Chairmanship of Mr. J. G. Covernton, the then Educational Inspector, Northern Division, to revise the earlier reading series and to produce additional series, if necessary. This Committee did its job very thoroughly and revised all the four series. It also brought out a new series of three Agricultural Readers meant for, Standards III, IV and V and another new series of three books for girls primary schools. All these series came into the market in 1906.

On a recommendation made by the Covernton Committee, the publication and sale of the reading series—which had so far been organised by the Department—was entrusted to Messrs. Macmillan and Co., subject to certain rigid conditions regarding the production, get-up and prices of the books. Government received a royalty of ten per cent. on this account. After the term of this agreement was over, fresh tenders were invited and the work of the publication and sale of Departmental readers was entrusted to a suitable firm. From 1920, Government decided to forego the usual royalty of 10 per cent. which it used to receive and the prices of books were reduced still further.

From about 1925, a new factor was introduced in the situation because under the Bombay Primary Education Act, 1923, the control of Primary Education was transferred to local bodies. The authority to prescribe text-books now vested in the District and Municipal School Boards which began the practice of prescribing, not the Departmental readers, but one or other of the several series prepared by enterprising authors that now began to come in the market. Even on merits these series were a great

* Vernacular Reading Books in the Bombay Presidency, pp. 33-34.

† Ibid, p. 33. It may be added that a special series of Modi Readers for the rural schools in Maharashtra and another series of agricultural readers were also added during this period. Proposals to have a special series for girls' primary schools were often put forward but were not accepted.

*Ibid, p. 32.

† The Book Department in the State proper was established in 1907-08, because by this time, professional book-sellers had come into existence and there was no longer any need for the Department to undertake this function.

improvement over the Departmental readers which, in spite of their excellence at one period, had become a little obsolete by 1925.* The demand for the departmental series, therefore, began to decrease and they were finally discontinued in 1939.

By 1939 the whole field of text-books had been entrusted to private enterprise and the only function retained by the Department was to scrutinise and approve of the text-books produced for use in primary and secondary schools. Text-Book Committees have existed since the very creation of the Department because Howard appointed the first Committee in 1856-57. In the early years, however, their only task was to help in the preparation of Departmental books. Later on, as private enterprise began to appear in the field, they were required to scrutinise the books produced by non-official agencies and to advise the Director of Education regarding their suitability for use in schools. This part of their work increased in proportion to the growth of private enterprise (and also due to the strict enforcement, since 1903, of the Departmental rule that no unsanctioned books should be used in recognised schools) and since 1939, it was the only work left for them. But unfortunately, the organisation of the Committee left much to be desired. The standards adopted, therefore, were rather lenient and a large multiplicity of text-books came to be produced and was also placed on the sanctioned list.

Evils of an entirely different type now began to appear in this field. Formerly, the main evils were (1) uniformity, (2) the generally obsolete character of the material provided, and very often (3) even a certain inferiority in quality. These evils were now diminished no doubt; but the very abundance of the material provided led to several other evils such as rise in costs and at times favouritism.

15 (33). *The Pavate Committee*.—Government, therefore, felt that the whole matter should be investigated afresh and a special committee was appointed for the purpose under the chairmanship of Shri D. C. Pavate.† The main problem posed for this committee was to suggest an efficient technique for the preparation and selection of text-books.‡ On a very careful examination of the problem, it made several recommendations the more important of which are given below:—

(1) A scrutiny of the existing books shows that there is a dearth of really good books as regards finish and attractiveness; and that even

*“The very fact that these readers contained lessons on subjects like history, geography and science went against them. It was pointed out that the object of language readers was to foster a love for literature and the books which were a medley of general information on all subjects could hardly achieve that object. Moreover, separate books on history, geography, and science came to be written in large numbers, some of which, at any rate, could with advantage be used in primary schools. The uniformity in four series, in spite of the variations allowed for social, historical and geographical peculiarities, was also a subject of criticism. Although separate pictures were provided in some cases where local divergencies necessitated such a course, there were many common pictures which did not suit local conditions”.—Report of the Pavate Committee, pp. 9-10.

† The Committee was appointed under G. R., E. D., No. 232 of 28-6-1939 and its Report was published in 1942.

‡ See Chapter VII of the Report of the Committee appointed by the Government of Bombay in connection with Selection and Preparation of Text-Books.

as regards matter and style, there are very few sets of books which are written with a knowledge and appreciation of the child mind and which maintain a uniformly high standard.*

(2) The Divisional School Book Committees which are the sanctioning authorities work on a plan which, though it may have been efficient at one time, has now ceased to be so. In most cases, these are heterogeneous committees where every member is called upon to give his opinion on books on all subjects. Thus there is no scope for specialised expert opinion making its weight felt. As a result, books inferior in quality have got on to the sanctioned lists. To ensure greater efficiency in the selection and sanction of books we have recommended that these committees should be reconstituted and small sub-committees of impartial experts should be set up for each subject and the members should receive adequate remuneration for the work of reviewing books.†

(3) The procedure for prescribing text-books for primary schools should be radically altered and improved.‡

(4) The system of “rigid uniformity” as well as that of “unlimited diversity” have certain obvious evils. It is, therefore, desirable to have a system of “limited variety” under which only a restricted number of first-rate books is placed on the sanctioned list at a time (e.g. 10 in Marathi, 5 in Gujarati, etc.) the exact number in each case being determined on the principle that the expected sales should be so large as to make it possible for the cost of the books to be reduced to the lowest possible limit.§

With regard to text-books in secondary schools, however, the Committee did not recommend any material changes. It was of the opinion that “a more vigorous insistence on good quality” by the reconstituted Book Committee will bring about all the improvement necessary in this field.||

15 (34). *School Texts (1945-55)*.—The recommendations of the Committee could be considered and approved by Government only after the Popular Ministry came back into office in 1946. But most of the important suggestions made by the Committee have now been implemented. Under the Bombay Primary Education Act, 1947, and the rules made thereunder, the power of prescribing text-books for primary schools has been transferred to Government. Secondly, it was decided to re-introduce Departmental readers in primary Standards I to IV Marathi, Gujarati and Kannada. Accordingly suitable books were prepared and introduced in all primary schools between 1948-49 and 1951-52. It is generally agreed that this new series of Departmental readers is not inferior in quality to any of the books which were produced by non-official agencies in the past and their price has now been reduced to such a low level that it

* Report of the Committee appointed by the Government of Bombay in connection with the Selection and Preparation of Text-Books. p. ix.

† Ibid, p. ix.

‡ Ibid, p. 71.

§ Ibid, Chapter V.

|| Ibid, p. x.

would be impossible for any private agency to compete with them. This reform has, therefore, been a great advance in reducing the cost of Primary Education to the parents. Lastly, Text-books Committees have been fully reconstituted* on the broad lines recommended by the Pavate Committee. In the new rules framed for the purpose, provision is also made for the submission of appeals to Government by authors and publishers against the rejection of their books by the Department and every care is taken to see that while no injustice is done to any interest, the best available books on each subject will be sanctioned for use in schools.

As stated above, the new rules for the constitution of the Text-Book Committees were passed in May, 1954. They were brought into force immediately and new text-books were sanctioned simultaneously for primary and secondary schools in all standards up to IX and in all subjects in June, 1955 because the entire curriculum for these schools had been revised. Owing to the huge task attempted in so short a time certain difficulties naturally arose. For example, some errors crept into the sanctioned books in spite of all the vigilance exercised by the Text-Book Committees and the new books were not available in sufficient quantity as soon as the schools opened for the new year in June. But steps have since been taken to see that such difficulties will not recur in future. The main object of Government in devising the new procedure for the selection and publication of text-books was to make the best books available to the pupils at the lowest cost, and even a cursory examination of the new books would show that they are of a much better standard than the old text-books in their content, approach to the subject, and general get-up.

IX Patronage to Literature

15 (35). *Patronage to Literature prior to 1855*.—The idea that it is the duty of Government to patronize literature in the classical and modern languages of India was being continually put forward by several officers of the East India Company who were interested in oriental studies. The framers of the Charter Act of 1813 accepted this plea and provided that the "revival and improvement of literature" should be one of the objects of educational expenditure in India. This legislation, therefore, may be said to have laid the foundation of State patronage to literature.

The Bombay Native Education Society laid a special emphasis on the production of useful books in the modern Indian languages, partly for the use of schools and partly for the general purpose of spreading Western science and literature among the people. Several English works were thus translated into modern Indian languages and some original works were also compiled. The work of translation or compilation was generally carried out by selected Indian scholars under the supervision of European officers. All expenditure required for the purpose was met from the funds of the Committee. The published books were put on sale at prices which were not very high and were also supplied, free of charge, to public libraries and schools. It is on record that, between 1825 and 1830, the

Society spent about Rs. 2,17,000 on this project of producing books in Indian languages.

The policy was continued by the Society in later years and also by the Board of Education. But as the desire for English and vernacular schools began to grow, the funds allotted to this purpose were reduced very greatly. In 1855, the last year of the administration of the Board of Education, the amount spent for this purpose was reduced to a few hundred rupees only.

A great contribution made by the Board of Education to the problem was to appoint Major Candy as the Marathi Translator to Government. In this capacity, Major Candy was responsible for the production of a large number of Marathi works and did yeoman service to the development of a modern literature in Marathi.

In 1851, it was decided that a part of the amount earmarked for *Dakshina* should be utilised for awarding prizes to Marathi writers and translators for producing useful literature and a Dakshina Prize Committee was constituted for the purpose. Until 1855, the Committee received 99 works of which 46 were approved. A sum of Rs. 11,000 was awarded in prizes. Eight books only were printed and five were prepared for the Press. It is, therefore, evident that the Dakshina Prize Committee was not able to function as actively as was originally expected. But in the absence of special grants from Government funds, it served a very useful purpose in encouraging the production of original works as well as translation in the Marathi language.

15 (36). *Patronage to Literature (1855-1901)*.—With the creation of the Department of Education, however, the work of producing books in modern Indian languages was again taken up in right earnest. Howard was very keenly interested in the development of literature in modern Indian languages and he was not quite satisfied with the translation of English books which had been published in the past. He felt that a greater emphasis should now be placed on the compilation of original books in Indian languages rather than on translations. "Major Candy," he wrote, "has devoted more than a quarter of a century to the study and improvement of the Marathi language; and it is on his agency, aided by the four 'translation exhibitors' at Poona, that I chiefly rely for the preparation of Marathi School-books. As yet it is apparently impossible to dispense with European superintendence in getting up vernacular treatises of general knowledge. There is no doubt that the books are the worse in point of style from this circumstance. Natives complain that at the best they are stiff, and ungainly; and probably it must needs be so. A Council of *pundits* may correct and retouch, but the original foreign air will never entirely disappear. And the very merits of the European scholar,—his logical precision of thought, his taste for grammatical analysis, and love of symmetry,—become defects, in as much as they tend to sweep away the racy anomalies which grow up in the structure of every language, and to a native ear constitute some of its greatest attractions. At any rate, our Government vernacular books are not popular; and I look forward anxiously to the time when we shall have native writers, not mere translators, compilers, or adapters, but authors competent to handle a subject

* G. R., E. D., No. STE 1052 of 10th May, 1954.

from their own point of view with unforced originality and adequate knowledge, and willing to make the best of their own language as it is without importing unnecessary words from others. I must admit that our native education has signally failed as yet to produce vernacular book-writers. Few young men trained in our colleges care to write for the instruction of their countrymen,—few probably would be qualified to do so. And of those who write, being English scholars, no one, as far as I know, has been able to free himself from the tendency to anglicise his vernacular style. On the other hand, those who know little English are too apt to indulge in Sanskrit or Persian words and constructions.”* This policy was accepted by Government. “Patronage has been awarded” wrote Howard in the review of his administration of nine years. “to (1) collections of indigenous (Prākṛit) poetry; (2) imitations in the Vernacular of Sanskrit dramas; (3) books on philology; (4) original plays and works of fiction; and (5) periodicals. For all these classes of literature there is a genuine demand among the people. On the other hand encouragement has been withdrawn from little compendia of useful knowledge like Pinnock’s Catechisms which used to form the staple of native authorship, but which no native would read a word of except in school under the ferrule. It is believed that a real stimulus has thus been given to vernacular literature at an expense to the state which was until lately two thousand one hundred rupees a year. The allowance for the patronage of Literature is now three thousand rupees.”† This policy was kept up by the later Directors also so that the Department continued to make a significant contribution to the development of modern literature in the regional languages.

The Dakshina Prize Committee seems to have functioned till the end of the century as the last reference to it occurs in the Report for 1898-99.‡ Every year it awarded prizes to some approved books in Marathi on certain general policies decided from time to time. In 1867, for instance, the Committee observed that “during the last few years Marathi literature had made considerable progress and that another source of patronage for authors, compilers and editors of works had been opened by Government in the form of funds placed at the disposal of the Education Department for the purpose.” The Committee, therefore, resolved to patronise works on purely literary subjects, excluding all school books, works on mathematics and such publications as are not intended for the instruction or amusement of the general readers. Accordingly prizes were awarded to the “best original Marathi poem on Shivaji”, to the best novel in Marathi representing “the conflicting agencies now operating on a young Hindu’s mind,” to the “best poem on the Ganges,” etc. Later on, the policy was slightly altered and scientific works also began to be patronized. This valuable service which the *Dakshina* did to the development of Marathi literature naturally deserves special notice.

In addition to this yearly allocation from the Dakshina Fund, Government also placed a specified amount at the disposal of the Department every year for “Patronage to Literature.” This is the special “allowance”

* Report of the Director of Public Instruction, Bombay, 1857-58, pp. 42-43.

† p. 22.

‡ p. 60.

to which Howard makes a reference in the passage that has been quoted earlier. This was generally utilised for purchasing copies of approved books which were later on distributed to educational institutions and public libraries.

The third way in which Government helped the development of modern literature in Indian languages was to appoint Translators to Government. It has already been stated that the office of the Marathi Translator was created even prior to 1855. A Gujarati Translator was appointed in 1855-56, a Kannad Translator in 1857-58, and finally a Sindhi Translator in 1870-71. These translators had a small staff under them and their duties included (1) the translation of approved books in the regional languages concerned; (2) the examination of books submitted for patronage, and (3) editing and publication of the Departmental books in the languages concerned. Throughout the nineteenth century, the offices of these translators* did a very valuable service to the development of modern literature in the regional languages.

A very significant development of this period was the entry of private Indian enterprise in the field. Several educated men now began to come forward to publish regional books in Marathi and Indians formed private associations for their encouragement. Among these may be mentioned the Dnyan Prasarak Mandali, Bombay, the Deccan Vernacular Translation Society, Poona, the Gujarat Vernacular Translation Society, Ahmedabad and the Karnatak Vidyavardhak Sangh, Dharwar. These bodies encouraged the writing of books in the regional languages concerned by way of prizes and grant of financial assistance. Government recognised their valuable work and admitted them to grant-in-aid.

An important service which the Department of Education did to the development of modern literature in the regional languages was to prepare and publish complete lists of books produced in them from time to time. The first such list was compiled by Grant who enumerated all the books published in the regional languages until 1865. Thereafter, such lists were prepared annually and published for general information. It was possible for the Director of Education to perform this duty because under the Press and Registration Act of 1867, printers were required to send copies of every book printed by them to the Director of Education. The lists published by the Department in accordance with the powers vested in it under this Act are extremely valuable for reference and research purposes.

15 (37). *Patronage to Literature (1901-55)*.—During the present century, the problem of official patronage to literature ceased to be important. The awakening among the public was sufficiently great and a number of original works now began to be published annually in all the regional languages. With the spread of education, the sale of books also increased considerably and a good volume of literature began to be produced on a commercial basis. In a field of this type, the only responsibility of the State is to give an initial momentum. That duty had already been performed and private enterprise had not only entered the field but also

* Later on these translators were transferred from the Education Department and a separate office of the Orient Translator to Government was organised.

taken the situation almost completely under its control. It was, therefore, considered desirable to restrict *direct* State activity to the patronage of such books as are desirable from the scientific or scholastic point of view but whole publication is not likely to be commercially successful, and to encouraging the development of literature in a number of *indirect* ways. The old patronage to institutions like the Deccan Vernacular Translation Society was continued; the universities were encouraged to take up a good deal of responsibility for patronising the publication of learned works; and a system of grant-in-aid was also instituted for research institutions in the regional languages. These three forms of indirect patronage supplement the direct patronage given to authors and, under the present circumstances, any attempts of more intensive type are not felt to be either desirable or necessary.

X Boy Scouts and Girl Guides

15 (38). *Boy Scouts and Girl Guides in Primary and Secondary Schools*.—The general history of the Scout Movement is beyond the scope of this Review and hence a few brief comments are offered here regarding the growth of the activity in primary and secondary schools.

The Scout Movement began in this State in the second decade of this century, but it made slow progress and until the end of the First World War, it was mostly restricted to a few European, Anglo-Indian and Parsi schools in Bombay and Poona. But in 1919, an officer of the I. E. S. (Mr. A. C. Miller) was put on special duty to organise the Movement in the State and was sent round India to study the existing organisations and then to England for a further study of the Movement. While in England, he drew up a scheme for the affiliation of the Indian Troops to the Baden-Powell Organisation. This idea was greatly fostered by the visit of Lord (then Sir) Robert Baden-Powell to India and consequently the Scout Movement in this country was officially recognised by the international organisation. In 1921, Mr. Miller and six Indians were sent for specialised training to England and on their return a training camp was organised at Lonavala (January, 1922) at which 177 Scoutmasters were trained. With this camp, the basis for the spread of the Movement to secondary schools was laid.

The annual Census of 1922 showed only 1,696 Scouts and Scouters. But in the next quinquennium, the progress was very rapid, the figures for the subsequent years being 5,183 in 1923, 7,163 for 1924 and 10,281 for 1925. At the end of the quinquennium, there were 52 local associations, 413 Troops and Packs and 10,829 Scouts.

In the next quinquennium (1927-32) the progress was even greater. The increase in the scale of the movement is shown by the census returns for 1932—126 local associations, 1,306 Troops and Packs and 34,939 Scouts. "The most outstanding event of this quinquennium was the great All-India Jamboree opened by His Excellency, the Chief Scout for India in Bombay, in December, 1927. Nearly twelve thousand Scouts from all parts of India, Burma, and Ceylon gathered, and this Presidency had had the opportunity of being hosts for the entire contingents. The second event was the partaking in the World Jamboree at Birkenhead by 91 Scouts and

Scouters from this Presidency, this contingent being the largest single unit from India as also constituting nearly half of the whole number. Both these events had a very beneficial influence on the Movement in this Presidency and contributed to the vitality of Indian Scouting in general."*

Two other developments of this period also deserve notice. The first was the interest shown by the local bodies in Scouting with the result that the Movement began to spread to primary schools and rural areas. The Bombay Municipality gave a lead in this matter, as in several others, and appointed a whole-time Scout Organiser. The Satara District School Board gave a similar lead and other School Boards also began to develop the Movement on a more intensive scale. Secondly, some of the local associations made great progress and even constructed buildings of their own.

The progress was kept up during the next quinquennium also. But then a set-back came in. Certain remarks made by Lord Baden-Powell prejudiced the people and a move to dissociate the scouting movement in India from the Baden-Powell Organisation (represented in this State by the Boy Scouts Association, Bombay) was started. In 1938-39, the Hindustan Scout Association of the State was formed. It adopted a revised version of the Scout Promise† and discontinued its affiliation with the Boy Scout Association of India. Government granted recognition and grant-in-aid to this institution which had the largest support of the Scouters in the State. But the old Boy Scouts' Association also continued to function, although Government had stopped its grant-in-aid and its public support had greatly fallen. In 1939-40, however, it was readmitted to Government grant and schools were given the option to affiliate their Troops to either Association.

After the attainment of Independence both these separate organisations were united into one and were designated as the *Bharat Scouts Association* (1950).‡ India, therefore, now has its own unified and independent scout organisation which is affiliated directly to the International Bureau.

On 31st March, 1955 there were 84 local associations, 675 Guide Groups, 1,399 Scout Groups, 10,890 Guides and 36,152 Scouts. The number of Open Troops—and this is always regarded as the more appropriate index of the strength of the Movement—is about 100 only! It may, therefore, be said that the number of Scouts in the State is less than one per cent. of the total number of pupils in primary and secondary schools. The Movement has, on the whole, made but small progress in educational institutions and it has not yet reached even the fringe of the population outside the school. On educational grounds, it is very desirable that a movement of this type

* Report of the Director of Public Instruction, Bombay, 1927-32, p. 80.

† The old promise was: "I promise on my honour that I will do my best (1) to do my duty to God, king and country, (2) to help others at all times and (3) to obey the scout law". There was also an option to omit the word "country" from the above on the ground that the word "king" included "country" also. But now, the word "king" was dropped.

‡ The separate association that had been organised in the past for Girl Guides was also amalgamated with this body in 1951.

which helps to develop personality and provides good training in citizenship should be better organised and should reach a much larger percentage of the total child and youth population. The problem of vitalising the Movement in the new context is, therefore, under the consideration of Government.

XI Military Training

15(39). *The Early Beginnings*.—The objects of Military Education are: (1) to build up discipline, comradeship and the ideal of service, (2) to develop character and qualities of leadership, and (3) to create a reserve of trained personnel which would serve as a second line of defence and also supply additional officers and men who would enable the defence forces to expand rapidly in a national emergency. In spite of this importance, however, Military Education was slow to begin in India. Its need was first recognised in 1914 and the opportunity to join the Voluntary Corps was really thrown open to Indians under the Indian Defence Forces Act, 1917.* It may also be interesting to note that on 17th February, 1917, Lokmanya Tilak and Dr. R. P. Paranjpe preached, from a common platform, the desirability of joining the Indian Defence Forces. The response to that appeal was very great and a large number of students and professors enlisted their names in the corps, although the prospects of getting Commissioned ranks were not bright at that time.

15 (40). *The University Training Corps*.—In 1920, the Indian Territorial Force Act which replaced the Indian Defence Forces Act was passed. Under its provisions, the earlier University Companies were recognised as a Battalion, under the University Training Corps, and a permanent instructional staff was allotted by the military authorities. The Unit was designated as the First Bombay Battalion—UTC; ITF. In the beginning, it was limited to Bombay and Poona; but later on it was also extended to Dharwar, Ahmedabad and Sangli.

In 1924, as the result of a motion passed in the Legislative Assembly, the Government of India appointed a Committee, known as the Auxiliary and Territorial Forces Committee, whose report was published in 1925. The Committee regarded the functions of University Training Corps primarily educational and felt that (1) the growth of national military spirit should not be forced by an application of compulsion, (2) that the University Training Corps should not have any liability for military service, (3) that the members of the corps should be drawn from the staff and students of universities and colleges; and (4) that the cadre should be allowed to expand up to its natural limits without any arbitrary limitation by military authorities, provided the educational authorities could guarantee a fixed minimum of members and arrange for suitable officers. It was on these lines that the UTC was developed for the next two decades.

* It may be pointed out that hardly any Indians were admitted to the Voluntary Corps prior to 1917 although there was no statutory prohibition on the enrolment of Indians, and it was left open to the Commanding Officers to admit or exclude any would be recruits.

The Bombay University Act of 1928 permitted the University to make grants from the funds of the University towards the maintenance of any corps established for the University under the Indian Territorial Forces Act of 1920. Provision was also made for an Advisory Committee, the Vice-Chancellor being the *ex-officio* President.

As years passed, military training became more popular and in 1940, the strength of the First Bombay Battalion was increased by 50 per cent. In 1942, two Battalions were constituted, their headquarters being at Bombay and Poona. In the same year, the UTC was also changed into UOTC (University Officers' Training Corps) and this came to be regarded as a recruiting ground for the officers of the Armed Forces.

During the Second World War, the Government of India felt the need for Commissioned Officers very keenly but these were not provided as largely by the UOTC as was expected. A feeling, therefore, began to develop that the UOTC had failed to fulfil the object for which it had been established. The whole subject was, therefore, referred to the National Cadet Corps Committee, presided over by Pandit H. N. Kunzru. The far-reaching recommendations of this Committee were accepted by Government and the National Cadet Corps Act, 1948 was passed. It replaced the UOTC by the Senior Division of the National Cadet Corps.

15 (41). *The National Cadet Corps*.—The National Cadet Corps (or briefly the N.C.C.) has three Divisions or Wings: (1) The Senior Division for men students of the universities and colleges affiliated to them; (2) the Junior Division for boys in the upper classes of secondary schools; and (3) the Girls' Division for girls in schools and colleges. There are two important respects in which the N.C.C. Organisation differs from the old UOTC scheme. Firstly, the N.C.C. Units are commanded by regular Army Officers, and secondly, N.C.C. is designed to consist of not merely the Army Wing but also the Naval and Air Wings. Both these innovations are calculated to improve the efficiency and usefulness of the organisation.

In view of the essentially educational aspect of the scheme, its actual implementation has been entrusted to the Education Departments of the State Governments, the Director of Education being responsible for its detailed administration. The expenditure on the raising and the maintenance of the corps is met by the State Governments. The Government of India bears the expenditure on the Central Organisation which is required to exercise control over the different Divisions of the N.C.C. and to assist the States in running them, and on the pay and allowances of Officers, i.e., J.C.Os. of the Regular Army who are posted to N.C.C. Units. The Government of India has also undertaken the liability of providing, free of cost, arms, ammunition and equipment required for training purposes of the Units. Since September, 1954, the Government of India decided to supply, free of charge, even clothing required for the N.C.C. (The cost on account of this item was formerly borne by State Governments). The Government of India has further agreed to bear half the expenditure on the cadre and annual camps.

(a) *Senior Division N.C.C.*—In 1948-49, the teachers from colleges concerned were deputed for pre-Commission training at various Army

Centres. Those college teachers who held Commissions in the old U O T C and expressed their willingness to serve in the N. C. C. were granted Commissions, the period of their service and ranks in the old U O T C being taken into account. The final allotment of the Units to colleges was made by Government in September, 1948. It consisted of 5 Infantry Battalions and 4 Special Units *viz.*, one Medical Coy., one Artillery Unit, one Armoured Squadron, and one Engineer Platoon. In 1949-50, the number of the Units was raised to 16 by the addition of the one Infantry Unit and an Air Squadron was raised in the year 1950-51. There was no expansion of the Senior Division N. C. C. during the year 1951-52 except that the strength of the Air Squadron was raised by 25. In 1952-53, a Naval Unit consisting of 60 cadets and 2 officers was raised at Bombay and the strength of the Air Squadron was further increased by 25 cadets. An Engineer Platoon, the third of its kind, was raised towards the end of 1953-54, and towards the middle of 1954-55, 3 more Infantry Units were added. Thus there are 11 Infantry Units and 12 Special Units at present.

In 1949-50, a post of a Special Officer for the N. C. C. was created in B. E. S. Class II. The technical advice of this Officer was of considerable use in the early years of the Scheme. But the requirements of the N. C. C. were soon standardized and the post of the Special Officer was, therefore, abolished in June, 1954. In the meantime, the Government of India has created N. C. C. Circles and the Circle Commanders look after the technical side of the N. C. C. (i.e., the training of the Cadets) within their areas.

In accordance with the N. C. C. rules, Government has appointed the following Committees to advise it on matters relating to the N. C. C.:—

(i) The State Advisory Committee for the N. C. C.

(ii) The Senior Division N. C. C. Advisory Committees (one for each university).

Non-Government colleges are paid grants by Government for the expenditure incurred by them on the N. C. C. at the rate of 50 per cent. The following table gives the total expenditure incurred by the State Government on the Senior Division N. C. C. during each of the last 6 years:—

TABLE No. 15 (18)

Total State Expenditure on N. C. C. Senior Division

Year.	Total Expenditure.			
	Rs.			
1948-49	2,71,245
1949-50	4,06,954
1950-51	6,82,185
1951-52	7,19,102
1952-53	8,94,208
1953-54	12,18,075
1954-55	12,86,475



(b) *The Girls' Division.*—Thirteen sub-troops of the Girls' Division were raised in 1954. Each sub-troop consists of 1 N. C. C. Officer and 30 Cadets. Admission to the Division is, for the time being, confined to girls in colleges. The number of girls taking part in this activity is nearly 300 and Government is thinking of expanding this Section more rapidly.

(c) *Junior Division N. C. C.*—The Junior Division Cadet training was introduced in the secondary schools of the State in 1948-49 and the Government of India appointed a Liaison Officer for looking after the training of the Cadets and for making arrangements for holding camps. The following table shows the number of Sub-Units, the number of Cadets and the expenditure incurred by the State Government on the Junior Division N. C. C. during each of the years 1948-49 to 1952-53:—

TABLE No. 15 (19)
N. C. C. Junior Division

Year.	Sub-Units.	Cadets.	Expenditure.
			Rs.
1948-49	108	3,240	91,278
1949-50	134	4,020	4,31,205
1950-51	163	4,890	5,48,189
1951-52	181	5,430	5,95,000
1952-53	181	5,973	6,00,000

It will be seen from the above table that even in 1952-53, the N. C. C. movement had reached only a very small percentage of the pupils in secondary schools. It was also noticed that only 147 secondary schools out of a total of 1,403 took advantage of this scheme. It was, therefore, obvious that it was financially impossible to extend this scheme to all the secondary schools of the State and to enrol a majority of their students into the movement. Government, therefore, decided to abolish the Junior Division of the N. C. C. in 1953.

15 (42). *Auxiliary Cadet Corps.*—Auxiliary Cadet Corps was introduced with the primary object of extending the benefits of Military Education to as large a number of students in secondary schools as possible. Its aims are: (i) to build up the youth mentally, morally and physically and to make them good and disciplined citizens by developing their character and capacity for leadership; (ii) to develop in them the principles of patriotism; (iii) to develop team-spirit and corporate life; (iv) to train them for social service; and (v) to teach them the dignity of labour. The A. C. C. training, therefore, includes mass drill, team-games, route-marches and camps. Special projects are also drawn up and training is imparted in citizenship, first aid, sanitation and hygiene.

The expenditure on A. C. C. is suitably distributed among the parties concerned and Government bears a substantial part of the whole scheme.

On 31st March, 1955, there were 941 trained teachers in the A. C. C. and the number of Cadets was 38,000.

It is very gratifying to note that the N. C. C. is now being regarded as a valuable training for the youth of the country. In admission to medical and engineering colleges, some weightage is given to N. C. C. training. The N. C. C. is also regarded as an additional qualification for admission to the Sub-Inspectors' Course of the Police Department. The 'B' Certificate Examination of the N. C. C. is regarded as equivalent to the Inter-Arts or Science Examination of the University. In the Indian Military Academy, Dehra Dun, a Cadet who passes the 'C' Certificate of the N. C. C. and his degree examination is given a year's seniority over the other candidates who do not have this qualification. Thus the N. C. C. is coming to be recognised as a valuable qualification by the Government and the public alike, and it is hoped that a large percentage of the young men and women of this State will soon begin to take advantage of this training.

XII Museums*

15 (43). *The Baroda Museum and Picture Gallery*.—The Baroda Museum was founded in 1837 by Maharaja Sayajirao Gaikwad of Baroda. The institution was a great favourite of its enlightened ruler who collected and acquired a very large number of objects of cultural and scientific interest from various parts of the world. The Picture Gallery was built as an annexe to the Museum in 1914. With the merger of the Baroda State in 1949, the Museum as well as the Picture Gallery were taken over by the Educational Department.

The Baroda Museum is regarded as an important museum not only in this State, but in the whole of India. The European Picture Gallery is similarly considered as perhaps the best in Asia. It is the only gallery where the old Masters of Europe can be studied in original. Side by side with it, there is also a gallery of modern Indian paintings and a Print Room.

The Museum has an excellent library and also arranges special exhibitions, public lectures, film shows, radio talks, etc. from time to time. University students and research scholars are given special facilities to study the exhibits and to make sketches or take photographs for research purposes.

The Museum co-operates with the M. S. University of Baroda in conducting courses for the Diploma in Museology. The following are its more important Sections:—

- (1) Natural History comprising Zoology, Geology and Economic Botany.
- (2) Ethnology, Ethnography and Folklore.
- (3) Indian Civilisation and Art.
- (4) Civilisation and Art of Greater India.

* The Department did not maintain any museums prior to 1948-49. On the merger of Indian States, it had to take over several museums conducted by the old States. Most of these have since been transferred to the Departments concerned.

- (5) Chinese Civilisation and Art.
- (6) Japanese Civilisation and Art.
- (7) Nepalese and Tibetan Art (including Lamaistic Art of Mongolia and China).
- (8) The Civilisation and Arts of Ancient South-Western Asia and Egypt.
- (9) Greek and Roman Civilisation and Art.
- (10) Muslim Civilisation and Art in South-Western Asia and Africa.
- (11) European Civilisation and Art.
- (12) Coins and Medals.

XIII School Medical Service and School Meals

15 (44). *Medical Inspection*.—The problem of the medical inspection of children attending secondary and primary schools attracted the attention of Government as early as in 1911; and after a good deal of preliminary correspondence on the subject, a scheme of medical inspection was sanctioned in 1913. It contemplated the appointment of a special medical officer, together with the necessary subordinate staff, for the City of Bombay and for each of the educational divisions of the State for the purpose of the medical inspection of students in secondary schools and primary teacher's training institutions and practising schools attached to them. But no effect could be given to the proposals owing to the outbreak of the First World War. Six posts of Medical Inspectors of Schools on the scale of Rs. 500-50-800 (along with necessary subordinate staff) were, however, created in 1920-21 and appointments to these posts were also made in May, 1921. Unfortunately, all this establishment was disbanded in August, 1922 as a measure of retrenchment.

As stated earlier in Chapter X, the problem of medical inspection of the children in primary and secondary schools was again taken up in 1937 when a general scheme of Physical Education was adopted by Government. In 1942, detailed orders were passed on the subject and they provided—

- (1) that a routine medical examination of a child should be held:—
 - (a) on entry into a primary school at approximately the sixth year of age,
 - (b) at the 11th year,
 - (c) on leaving at the 14th year, and
 - (d) for children in high schools when leaving at the age of 17;
- (2) that in the case of children who are found defective in health at the routine medical inspection, re-inspection should be undertaken after a reasonable period and where possible, medical treatment should also be given to them;

(3) that in addition to the routine examination, height and weight figures should be taken at regular intervals and not less than twice a year and recorded in the form of graphs by the teachers and that any child showing material variation from the normal progress should be brought to the notice of a doctor; and

(4) that a medical certificate containing the record of the medical examinations of a child should be attached to the leaving certificate, whenever there is a change of school, and if, for any particular reason, the second routine medical examination has not been held in any case at the end of Primary Standard IV, arrangements should be made to examine the child concerned medically when he seeks admission for the first time into a secondary school.

Accordingly arrangements have been made by a large number of secondary schools for the conduct of the medical inspection of their pupils on the lines of the above instructions. In many places, the managements of schools have been able to enlist the co-operation of local doctors in conducting medical inspection and attending to the follow-up work.

As regards primary schools, orders were issued by Government that local authorities should prepare schemes for medical inspection of school children in consultation with the Director of Public Health and submit them to Government through the Public Health and Education Departments. The working of the schemes was to be supervised by the Public Health Department while the expenditure on grants payable to Local Authorities was to be controlled by the Director of Education. At present, only 6 District Local Boards and 11 Authorised Municipalities have introduced schemes of medical inspection in their primary schools.*

In 1947, a second attempt was made to create a school health service and a Chief Medical Officer was appointed and given the necessary office establishment (1948). Under the orders of Government, the Chief Medical Officer carried out a survey of a few selected districts in the State and submitted a general scheme under which one unit comprising of a medical officer in B.M.S. Class II, one nurse, one clerk and one peon was proposed to be organised in each district for the medical examination of school children. But before the scheme could be introduced, the office of the Chief Medical Officer was abolished in April, 1950 as a measure of retrenchment.

It will be seen, therefore, that it has not yet been possible for financial reasons to adopt any general and comprehensive scheme of medical inspection and treatment of school children.

15 (45). *Schools Meals*.—The problem of providing mid-day meals to poor and under-nourished children attending primary and secondary schools is so vast that it was not possible to undertake any general scheme for the purpose. Under G. R., G. D., No. 4986/33 of 6th July, 1943, therefore, Government accepted the limited recommendation of the

* The extremely valuable and important work done by the Bombay Municipality in respect of (a) medical inspection and treatment and (b) provision of school meals has already been described in Chapter III, Section (12).



Children's Reading Room



Children's Stage

MacLachlan* Committee that free mid-day meals should be provided for the children of the Aboriginal and Hill tribes attending three selected central primary schools in each of the Districts of Panch Mahals, Surat, Thana, West Khandesh and Nasik as an experiment to ascertain whether such provision would result in an increase of attendance. The estimated cost of the scheme was one anna per child per day, and the food supplied included fried grams, ground nuts, tomatoes, carrots, parched rice, onions, mangoes, guavas, plantains, etc. A sum of Rs. 2,400 was sanctioned for each district. In 1946, the scheme was extended to the children of the scheduled castes and other backward classes attending the selected schools in the above districts, and a few more schools in the Districts of Kolaba, East Khandesh, Poona and Ahmednagar were also selected for the purpose of the scheme. In 1950, however, the scheme was discontinued because there was no evidence to show that the supply of mid-day meals resulted in an increase of attendance in primary schools.

In 1951-52, a scheme of mid-day meals was introduced in the Dangs District as a special measure of encouragement. The standard mid-day meal sanctioned for this scheme contains 20 tolas of Nagali, 1.4 Oz. of milk powder reconstituted into milk and multi-vitamin tablets. About 4,000 children are benefited from this scheme and the total annual expenditure is of the order of Rs. 40,000.

XIV Bal Bhavan

15 (46). The Bal Bhavan, Bombay, is a cultural and recreational centre for children and is open on all days, except Mondays, to children who hold admission badges† or are escorted by school teachers. It is centrally located in the pleasing surroundings of the Charni Road Gardens, now known as Balodyan, and is easily accessible by train or bus from different parts of the City. The foundation-stone of the building was laid by Sardar Vallabhbhai Patel on 24th May, 1950 and it was declared open by the President of India on 24th February, 1952.

"This Bal Bhavan" said Shri B. G. Kher, the Chief Minister, who had sponsored the idea, "marks a phase in the realisation of one of our cherished dreams—to have a place where in an atmosphere of freedom, culture and understanding, our children can find themselves and grow to their full stature." The Centre provides varied opportunities for children to engage themselves in creative and recreational activities which would help in the development of their personality and in stimulating qualities like civic responsibility, consideration for others and discipline.

The principal activities provided at the Bal Bhavan include (a) provision for a large number of games and other physical activities in the

* See Chapter XII, Section (7) for details.

† Admission badges are issued to all children, between 4 and 14 years of age, who pay the prescribed fee of annas eight per quarter and escorted children are admitted on payment of a fee of one anna. The children of Municipal Primary Schools, when escorted, are admitted free. Except on Sundays and for free shows, an entertainment fee of one anna per child is also charged for shows in the theatre of the Bal Bhavan (including cinema shows) which are arranged every week on Thursdays, Fridays, and Saturdays from 5-15 P.M. to 6-15 P.M.

Balodyan, (b) a reading-room which contains a large number of books in all the languages current in the State, and arranged to suit the tastes of children of different age-groups, and (c) an entertainment hall where provision is made for a number of indoor games, hobbies and handicrafts, a radio set, exhibition of films and occasional puppet shows or theatricals. The children attending the Bhavan also celebrate a number of festivals like Gokulastami, Christmas, Id, and Pateti and important days like the Independence Day or birth days of great men. Occasional trips and excursions are also arranged. The Bhavan has a small skeleton staff for the management of these activities, but their organisation is made possible because a large number of honorary women social workers spare time and look after and they guide the children in their different activities.

A recent activity organised at Bal Bhavan is the conduct of a Parent-teacher Group and a Demonstration Child Guidance Clinic under the joint auspices of the Executive Committee of the Bal Bhavan, the Indian Council for Mental Hygiene and the Secondary Training College, Bombay. The Parent-teacher Group meets every Monday to discuss the psychological problems of children and regular programmes of discussions, meetings, seminars, lectures and talks, exhibitions or film-shows are arranged. The object of the Child Guidance Clinic is to treat children suffering from all types of mal-adjustments in life such as behaviour, personality, habit and scholastic or other problems. It also functions as a Demonstration Clinic where teachers under training get an opportunity to study the principles of mental hygiene and the methods of dealing with difficult children. A staff of experts of the Indian Institute of Mental Health and Human Relations have kindly offered to give their services free at the clinic.

The Bal Bhavan has been largely supported by Government which has given a non-recurring grant of Rs. 1.8 lakhs for the building and also gives a recurring grant of Rs. 21,000 per year towards its current expenses. But it is encouraging to note that this activity has received generous support from non-official sources. The Sir Dorabji Tata Trust and the Sir Ratan Tata Charities have provided as endowment fund of Rs. 30,000 and Rs. 20,000 respectively for the purchase of books, and several donations in cash and kind are also received from time to time from different charities, institutions and individuals.

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